

AMERICAN ★ ★ HISTORY ATLAS

Adapted from the Large Wall Maps

Edited by

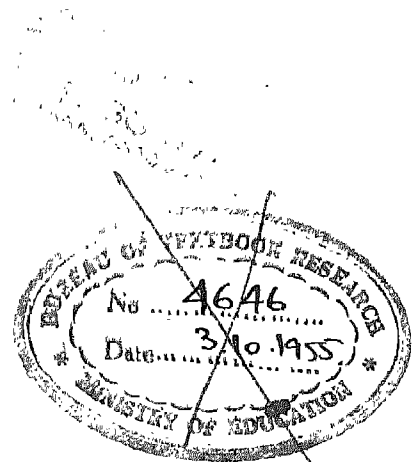
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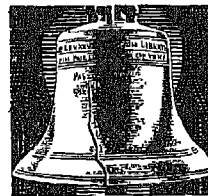
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Publisher's Note

In our country, schools spend sizeable amounts of money for American flags because they believe that the flag is an important symbol of our country. We think that this is a good practice, since the flag aids in promoting love of country. However, how many students really see the country behind the flag when they look at it?

The students in our schools today are the citizens of tomorrow. On them will fall the burden of conducting the affairs of the nation. They must, therefore, be educated for citizenship in a democracy. To carry on intelligently, the electorate must be well informed. In addition to love of country, Americans must "know" their country. They must possess a knowledge and understanding of American history and government. Certainly there is no better means of accomplishing this end than by supplementing the flags and textbooks in our schools with fine, colorful, and instructive maps; maps which cover, in graphic and easily understood form, a fairly complete history of the development of the American nation and its institutions.

The Hart-Bolton American History Maps contain a wealth of information. When correctly interpreted they open the door to the principal political, economic, and social problems that have faced the United States. No other group of maps cover so adequately all of the phases of our history. They aid materially in bringing out the all important element of continuity in history.

The fact that the maps in this atlas are reductions or adaptations of large wall maps assures the accuracy of details. The text matter is included for a double purpose: (1) to aid the reader in interpreting the maps and (2) to supply a teacher's manual for the wall maps themselves.

An atlas similar to this volume, dealing with Ancient, Medieval, Modern European, and World history, also containing 48 colored maps, together with text matter, is available at the same price as this atlas. The maps appearing therein and any of the maps appearing in this atlas may be obtained separately at small cost. For information in regard to this or the large wall maps, address the publishers. Desk and wall outline maps covering most of the areas here shown also are available.

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Basic Series:

Our Country's Story

MAP A1. WORLD OF COLUMBUS 1492

The history of America has its beginning in the old world. Its roots go back into European history, particularly to the period of the Crusades, from 1095 to 1270. During these years, while fighting for the cause of the Cross, large numbers of Europeans came to know people whose modes of life, arts, and crafts differed from their own. Returning pilgrims also brought back hearsay information of the Far East, the source of many of the newly discovered luxuries; and in the thirteenth century traders began to visit that part of the world. Among these was Marco Polo who visited the court of Kublai Khan. His account of his travels made known an undreamed of opportunity for commerce.

Tho there was little direct communication, trade between Europe and Asia had long been carried on by land and sea. The silks, glass, porcelain and other wares of Cathay reached Europe principally by overland routes. From Peking and other eastern cities, goods were brought to Kashgar, Samarkand, Balkh, Kabul, Herat, and Bokhara, which at that time were important cities. Here exchanges were made with western merchants, who carried the eastern goods on to Central and Western Europe. The ships of Venice and Genoa gathered at Cairo, or at Syrian ports, the goods which came by water around India and thru the Persian Gulf, or the Red Sea. From India and Ceylon came cotton, dyes, diamonds and pearls. From the Moluccas came spices, which were of the utmost importance in Europe because no methods of refrigeration or canning were known, and preserving was done largely with salt and spices. To the southern ports of the Mediterranean, likewise, led great highways over which gold, slaves, cotton, and salt were brought from the interior of Africa.

Since the seventh and eighth centuries the Mohammedan power had been established in Western Asia. At first in the hands of the Arabs, power eventually fell to the Ottoman Turks who, in 1453, captured Constantinople. By the close of the 15th century the fleets of the Ottomans controlled the eastern Mediterranean, rendering trade with the East increasingly difficult.

The Portuguese were the first to seek a new way to the East. Early in the 15th century they had colonized the Canaries. Under Prince Henry, the Portuguese pushed down the coast of Africa, and at his death, in 1461, the Sierra Leone coast had been reached. Conceiving the idea of a southern route to India, Diaz in 1484 passed the Cape of Good Hope.

Many scholars think that Columbus' aim was to find a western route to the Far East. Certainly he was bent on finding new lands, and in this he succeeded. His conceptions of world geography are probably well represented by Behaim's

Globe, the outlines of which are superimposed on the main map to show its relationship to the world map as we now know it today. Sailing to the Canaries, then west, he landed first in the Bahamas and later in Cuba and Espanola. Thinking he had reached the islands off India, described by Marco Polo, he spoke of these lands as the "Indies", hence the name "Indians" for the inhabitants.

Before the days of Columbus, the people considered the compass a faithful guide. After Columbus had proceeded westward, he discovered that the Compass pointed west from true north. When he reached the middle Atlantic, he was somewhat confused because the compass pointed east from true north. The region where he had this experience is shown by the upward bend of his route.

By sailing for the latitude of Cipango, and then heading west, Columbus accidentally encountered the Northeast Trade Winds and was helped along by them as well as by ocean currents. (His discovery is, therefore, sometimes referred to as a "windfall" instead of a "landfall.") On his return trip he endeavored first to get into the latitude of Palos, Spain, and by so doing was helped on his way by the Westerly Winds.

By the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494, a Line of Demarcation, dividing the newly discovered non-Christian lands between Spain and Portugal, was established by the pope. Everything on that half of the earth beginning 370 leagues west of Cape Verde, Africa was recognized as belonging to Spain, everything on the other half, to Portugal. The Line of Demarcation is shown on the map.

Altho Columbus is given the honor of discovering America, there is little doubt that other Europeans had visited this continent before him. The Norsemen, around the year 1000, visited Labrador and New England; but as attempts at settlements failed, as the records of their voyages are incomplete, and as the areas mentioned are difficult to identify, historians have preferred to date the discovery as 1492. Cabral in 1500, sailing from Portugal to India, accidentally drifted onto the coast of South America; therefore if Columbus had not reached America, it would have been discovered within that generation.

The Americas were inhabited by peoples of varying cultures, the origin of whom there has been much speculation. The generally accepted view is that the native Indian, with his close resemblance to the Mongols, Chinese, and Malays, probably came from Asia by the land bridge of the Aleutians, or across the narrow Bering Strait. These Indians had lived in America for possibly thousands of years before Columbus arrived.

In the 15th century the chief Indian tribes in North America, north of the Rio Grande, were the Algonquin, Iroquois, Sioux, Muskogee, and Shoshone. None of these tribes had advanced beyond the hunting and fishing or pastoral stage. In Central America civilization had made greater advances. Here we find the Maya people who were the dominant race at the time of the Spanish conquest. The Mayas occupied the lowlands of Central America and, between 1000 B.C. and the time of Christ, had built many cities whose pyramids, temples, and palaces indicate an advanced civilization. The "golden age" of Maya civilization was between 472 and 620 A.D.

The Mayas migrated to Yucatan in the seventh century A.D., leaving their old cities to become overgrown by the jungle. In Yucatan, Mayan civilization flourished from 1000 to 1442 A.D. There the Mayas established the League of Mayapan, formed by the three great cities of Mayapan, Uxmal, and Chichen Itza, which maintained authority in the peninsula for 200 years. On the break up of the confederacy, Mayan civilization decayed. The sites of Mayan cities are shown in detail on Map 3.

About 100 A. D. the Aztecs settled in the area near the present Mexico City, and by the middle of the fifteenth century dominated central Mexico. In culture and power they became the successors of the Mayas and Toltecs, the latter having occupied the Mexican plateau previous to the coming of the Aztecs. The Aztecs were conquered by Cortes in 1519 (see Map 3).

Out of the renaissance of three cultural areas which had flourished between the second century B.C. and the second century A.D., there arose, about 1100 A.D., the Inca power in the vicinity of Lake Titicaca. Little is known of the early history of these people. From Lake Titicaca the Inca rule expanded over neighboring regions until it extended from Ecuador in the north to the central part of Chile in the south. The capital was at Cuzco (see inset on Map 3), and at the height of its power the Empire of the Incas succeeded in developing a fairly high culture. At the time of Pizarro's expedition to Peru the country was in the midst of a political-religious crisis. Taking advantage of the situation, Pizarro seized the power of the ruling chief or emperor, Atahualpa, encountering little opposition from the people. As a result the land of the Incas came under the domination of Spain. The route of Pizarro is shown on Map 3.

INSET MAPS. One inset shows the places visited by Columbus in Europe in his efforts to secure funds and interest in his proposed voyage. The other reveals the part of the world known at that time, and should be studied in relation to the companion map inset on the next map.

MAP A2. WORLD EXPLORATION TO 1580

The great sea voyages of this century led westward to the Americas; southward and eastward to Africa, India, China, and Japan; and around the globe. The map portrays the new trade routes established and the areas occupied or claimed by the competing nations, particularly in America, as a result of these voyages.

The great voyage of Columbus in 1492 was the signal for a general outburst of energy spent in plowing new tracks across the ocean, running the coast lines of the western continents, and subduing the natives of the discovered areas. In four voyages Columbus explored the West Indies, discovered the southern mainland, and ran the Central American coast from Honduras to Darien. Meanwhile other mariners sailing under the flag of Spain, as well as those of other nations, joined in these explorations. For England the Cabots explored the northeastern coast of what is now the United States, establishing claim to "New England." Seeking pearls and trade for Spain, Ojeda, Pinzon, Bastidas and others ran the entire coast from Darien to 8° south latitude in 1499 and 1500.

In 1498 Diaz, for Portugal, reached India via Africa and laid the foundations of the Portuguese empire in the East. Then Cabral and Vespuccius explored from Pernambuco past 30° south latitude, establishing Portugal's claim to Brazil. With amazing rapidity Portugal now occupied the principal trading stations on the coasts of both Africa and southern Asia, and set up an eastern viceroyalty with its capital in Goa. Portugal, not Spain, had won in the race for the Indies.

By 1525, in the service of Spain, Solis, Ponce de Leon, Cordova, Grijalva, Pineda, Magellan, Gordillo, Quexos, and Gomez, looking not only for pearls, gold, slaves, and lands to settle, but for a strait to the East as well, had completed the reconnaissance of the eastern coast line of both Americas from Nova Scotia to the Strait of Magellan. Balboa and Cortes, established new bases on the Pacific; and by 1543 the Spaniards had explored the entire western coast of North America as far north as Oregon. In addition, Magellan and Elcano succeeded in crossing the Pacific, laying the foundations of Spanish domination in the Philippines.

Meanwhile the Spanish had conquered Central America, Southern Mexico and Peru; and from the West Indies and Mexico they had also explored the northern interior. Narvaez explored Florida, Cabeza de Vaca entered Texas and then crossed the continent to Sinaloa. Coronado, looking for the "Seven Cities," explored Arizona and New Mexico, and in search of Quivira reached Kansas. At the same time De Soto and Moscoso, looking for "another Mexico," penetrated the interior from Florida, to Oklahoma and central Texas. All this Spain accomplished by 1543, just half a century after Columbus' discovery. It is the greatest record of exploration in the history of the world.

During the same period similar explorations had been made in the interior of South America. Between 1524 and 1532 Pizarro and Almagro made their way down the coast of Columbia and Peru and across the Andes to Cuzco, where they overthrew the Inca rule. From there, Almagro (1535-37) and Valdivia (1541) continued south, crossing and recrossing the Andes, and conquered Chile. Orellano in 1541, turning east from Quito, explored the entire length of the Amazon River. Entering the continent from the east, Sebastian Cabot, in the service of Spain, ascended the La Plata River in 1526 to the site of Asuncion.

French explorers meanwhile had not been idle, and the freebooters of both France and England plundered Spanish settlements and treasure ships. For France, Verrazano had

explored the eastern coast line of North America and Cartier had entered the St. Lawrence River. Since the time of Cabot English exploration lagged, but in the last half of the sixteenth century the seamen of that nation made up for lost time. Looking for a northern passage and for opportunities to plunder trade, or settle, their keels plowed all seas. Willoughby turned northeast; Frobisher, Davis and others northwest; Drake, with a fearlessness equal to that of Magellan, passed the southern straits, plundered his way to Oregon, careened his single vessel on the California coast, and thence continued round the globe (1577-1580).

By the end of the century Portugal and Spain had become the two great colonizing powers and had set up their colonial systems in the "Indies," both East and West. These nations were not mere explorers, as some imagine, but were great colonizers as well. In 1580 probably not less than 200,000 Spaniards lived in America, engaging in mining, stock raising, agriculture, and industry. Most of the capitals of the Spanish-American nations of today were then in existence. Their work was enduring, for two-thirds of the Americas are still Hispanic (Spanish or Portuguese) in language, law, and culture.

INSET MAPS. One inset shows the routes of De Soto, De Vaca, Coronado, and others in the southern part of the United States and the northern part of Mexico. The other inset reveals the growth of geographical knowledge from 1492 to 1580.

MAP A3. SPANISH SETTLEMENT IN THE CARIBBEAN AREA 1492-1543

The school of European experience in America was the West Indies. Spain was the pioneer colonizer, and for more than a quarter century the scene of her colonial experiments was the Caribbean area—the West Indies and the adjacent shores of the mainland. To illustrate this development this map shows the beginning of actual settlement which occurred at the same time that explorers were feeling their way around the adjacent mainlands.

Columbus not only discovered the West Indies, but he was also the first explorer of the larger islands. The island first discovered was a small one to the north of Cuba, called Guanahani, which different students have variously identified with Cat Island, Watlings Island, or Samana. In his first voyage he also skirted the northern coasts of Cuba and Espanola. In the second he sailed along the northern coast of Puerto Rico, circumnavigated Espanola and Jamaica, and skirted almost the entire southern coast of Cuba.

The explorers were first led south in search of pearls and gold, and in the hope of finding a strait leading to India. Columbus discovered the Pearl Coast on his third voyage, while Ojeda and Bastidas explored the north coast of South America to Darien. On his fourth voyage Columbus, seeking a strait, ran the coast up to Honduras. By 1519 Cordova, Grijalva, and Pineda had made known the entire Gulf Coast. The way was now prepared for the conquest of Mexico by Cortes and his companions.

Meanwhile settlement had made considerable headway. The first center of colonization was the island of Espanola or

Haiti, where, at Isabella, Columbus established a settlement on his second voyage. Espanola might be called the nursery of European culture in America. From Espanola settlement expanded to Puerto Rico, Jamaica, Cuba and then on to the mainland.

The first permanent settlement on the mainland was made in the Gulf of Darien by a colony from Espanola. In 1519 Panama was founded on the South Sea. In the same year Cortes, setting out from Cuba, founded Vera Cruz; two years later he captured the great Aztec pueblo of Mexico which was at once rebuilt as a Spanish city. Within the following decade most of the native people of Central America, including the Aztecs and Mayas, were brought under the control of Spain. From Panama the conquest spread by steps to Peru, as well as to the north. Inca rule was overthrown by Pizarro in 1531 to 1533.

Hardly fifty years had elapsed between the coming of Columbus and the settlement of Central America, the southern section of Mexico, and the northern coast of South America. Several factors explain the marvelous rapidity with which Spanish rule was extended. The conquerors were looking for gold; and not finding it at one place, they hastened to another, led on by tales of riches. Also, the might of the Spaniards preceded them and paralyzed native resistance. In addition, native political organizations were weak and the Spaniards were everywhere aided by a great army of allies eager to help destroy their enemies.

Spain encouraged settlement in the Indies, as testified by the fact that over 2,500 settlers were at one time brought over by Ovando, and during the sixteenth century immigration to Spanish America averaged 1,000 to 2,000 a year. The industries in the island included gold mining in Espanola, and cotton, sugar, and cattle raising in all the islands; however, after the first quarter century the islands declined in prosperity, because the Indian laborers soon died off and Negro slaves were expensive. Finally, the success of Cortes in Mexico and Pizarro in Peru led settlers off to the mainland.

INSET MAP. This map shows the route of Pizarro from the Isthmus down the coast by water to the Gulf of Guayaquil, thence inland to Cuzco where the Inca rule was overthrown.

MAP A4. INTERNATIONAL RIVALRIES 1580-1750

The American nation owes its origin to the colonizing activities of the British, Dutch, Swedish, French, and Spanish. The territorial rivalries of the English, Dutch, and Swedish in the central regions of the Atlantic slope; the early controversies of the English with the French and Spanish for possession of the interior; and the relation of the Six Nations or Iroquois to these controversies form the background of early American history.

The first English attempts at colonization in North America, Gilbert in Newfoundland in 1578, and Raleigh at Roanoke Island in 1584, were unsuccessful. The first permanent English settlement was made at Jamestown in 1607. The next colonization movement was at Plymouth in 1620. This was followed

by the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1630 and the founding of Maryland in 1632.

The first French settlements on the coast of North America were the two temporary colonies on the Carolina coast, 1564-1565. Then followed Acadia, New France, and later Louisiana in 1699. These settlements involved France in serious controversies with England, resulting in the transfer of Acadia (Nova Scotia) to Great Britain in 1713. The boundary between the New England colonies and New France was long unsettled, as was the western frontier of the English colonies in the upper Ohio region and the boundary between New France and the Hudson Bay Company.

About the same time that the English were founding Jamestown, the Dutch, thru the Dutch East Indies Company, employed Henry Hudson to sail west in search of a short northwest passage to India. On discovering the river named after him in 1609, he claimed the region for the Dutch. In 1624 New Amsterdam (New York) was founded. In 1638 a small Swedish settlement was made on the Delaware on the site of the present city of Wilmington. Claiming the territory as their own, the Dutch captured and annexed New Sweden in 1655. The Dutch were now, as the Spanish had been before them, the great naval and commercial rival of England. Having eliminated the Swedes as a colonizing force, the Dutch now controlled a wide territory separating the northern and southern colonies of England. The threat of the Dutch was removed when an English fleet compelled the surrender of New Amsterdam in 1664 and with it all of New Netherlands.

In a previous map we have seen how the Spaniards, centering their activities in the West Indies, gradually occupied the adjacent mainland. In 1565 the Spaniards settled at St. Augustine in Florida. During the period covered by these maps, the English colonies were not brought into close contact with the Spanish colonies, except thru the founding of Georgia in 1733; however, the trading posts in the Indian country occasionally got into difficulties with the Spanish posts.

The distinction between European activities in eastern North America in the sixteenth century and those of the seventeenth is that in the latter period permanent settlements were made by France, England, Holland, and Sweden. The coastal areas were naturally the first to be occupied, towns, forts, and trading posts being established. Then followed forts and posts in the interior, such as Detroit, Michilimackinac, Green Bay, St. Joseph, Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Vincennes, Mobile, and New Orleans. The grasping manner in which Europeans first penetrated the interior and made the earliest western settlements is brought out by a study of the explorations of the French under Champlain, Nicolet, Allouez, Dollier, Joliet and Marquette, Duluth, Hennepin, and La Salle between the years 1615 and 1682.

The physical geography of eastern North America had considerable influence on the development of the French and British colonial empires. Of particular importance were the locations of the Appalachian Mountains and of the St. Lawrence River and chain of Great Lakes. The former with their wide belt of parallel ridges formed a serious obstacle to the conquering and settling of the West by the English. The

latter, while flanking the English settlements, gave the French direct access to the interior. Other factors worthy of note are the eastern coastal rivers which furnished excellent water routes for some distance inland, the low and easy portages from the Great Lakes to the heads of the tributaries of the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers, and the immense advantage the possession of the Mississippi River gave to the French.

One of the fundamentals necessary for an understanding of the exploration and settlement of North America is a knowledge of the distribution of the Indian tribes. The following points are clearly illustrated on Map B and Inset D: (1) the location of the principal tribes; (2) country and subdivisions of the Six Nations; (3) incorporation of the Tuscaroras (originally located in the Carolinas) into the Iroquois Confederation; (4) Creeks and Cherokees as a barrier to English settlement in the Southwest; and (5) English trails and trading routes in the Indian country.

MAP A5. ENGLISH COLONIAL GRANTS 1580-1763

The foundation and expansion of the English colonies in North America is shown on this map, bringing out the following data: (1) the relation of colonial development to physical geography; (2) the relation of the expansion of England to the early opening up of North America; (3) the first group of colonies from 1580 to 1600; (4) the second group of colonies from 1660 to 1763; and (5) the colonial capitals.

England was greatly favored by striking a part of the coast which abounded in good ports, backed up by a heavily forested and well-watered country. Altho there were several natural passes across the Appalachians, namely the Kennebec—Chaudiere, the Hudson—Champlain, the Mohawk—Lake Ontario, the Susquehanna—Monongahela, the Potomac—Monongahela, the Roanoke—Kanawha, and the Valley of Virginia—upper Tennessee—Cumberland, the mountain system was, nevertheless, wild and difficult to traverse. No permanent English settlements were, therefore, made beyond the watershed previous to the Revolution. The St. Lawrence River, however, opened up a direct road around that obstruction, enabling the French to get into and occupy the interior long before the English. Even along the waters of the Mississippi, the French distributed forts widely; but on the whole these French settlements had not enough population to be considered real colonies.

For convenience of study, the English colonies may be divided into those that had no claim beyond the Appalachians and those whose charters extended far westward. The first group embraced the following:

London and Plymouth Companies, 1606. Small settlements within prescribed areas. (Note the overlapping of the grants.)

Plymouth, 1620. No charter.

Virginia as a royal province, 1624. No charter.

Maryland, 1632.

New Hampshire, 1635.

Rhode Island, 1636. No charter until 1663.

Connecticut, 1636. No charter until 1662.
 New Haven, 1638. No charter.
 Maine, 1639.
 Rhode Island, 1663.
 New York, 1664.
 East Jersey and West Jersey, 1664.
 New Hampshire, 1679. No charter.
 Pennsylvania, 1681.
 Delaware, 1682. No charter.

The second group, those having western claims, was as follows:

Virginia, 1609 (Map A and Inset D).
 Virginia, 1612. Same bounds, adding Bermuda; this charter taken away in 1624.
 Council for New England (until 1633).
 Massachusetts, 1629. (Note northern boundary and adjustment with New Hampshire.)
 Carolina, 1663 (until 1665).
 Carolina, 1665 (until 1729).
 Second Massachusetts Charter, 1691 (until 1774).
 Connecticut Charter, 1662.
 Georgia, 1732 (until 1752).

The development of the British colonies cannot be understood without taking notice of the fact that there were numerous consolidations and annexations of colonies, the most important being as follows: (1) New Haven united with Connecticut about 1662; (2) Western Maine added to Massachusetts in 1687; (3) Eastern Maine added to Massachusetts in 1691; (4) Plymouth added to Massachusetts in 1691; (5) Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard added to Massachusetts in 1691; (6) two Jerseys united in 1702. With these six should be associated three cases where new colonies were set up by separation from a larger colony; (1) New Hampshire from Massachusetts in 1679; (2) Delaware from Pennsylvania in 1703; and (3) South Carolina from North Carolina in 1729. A great number of boundary claims and controversies arose in this period which cannot be shown in detail. Every New England colony, every middle colony, and Virginia had some kind of boundary difficulty with its neighbors previous to the Revolution.

INSET MAPS. The New England Confederation, 1643 to 1684, depicted on Inset C, was the first form of federal union among the colonies. It was brought about by the rivalry and quarrels between the Netherland and England in North America.

A controversy of considerable magnitude developed over the Virginia Charter. This charter called for a strip of land from sea to sea, beginning 200 miles north and south of Old Point Comfort and extending west and northwest. The Virginia claims are clarified by Inset D, which shows the three possible interpretations of the charter.

MAP A6. PARTITION OF AMERICA. 1700 AND 1763

The seventeenth century brought about great changes in the political geography of the western continents, particularly North America. At the close of the sixteenth century the

New World was chiefly in the possession of Spain and Portugal, but France, England, Holland, and Sweden had begun to make inroads. As the colonies of the rival nations expanded and their borders came into proximity or contact, international contests inevitably ensued. In South America the Portuguese, Spanish, and French competed on the eastern mainland; while English, French, and Dutch contested the possession of Guiana. In North America, besides the general scramble for possession of the Caribbean area, and the temporary competition of the Dutch and Swedish with each other and with the English, there developed before 1763 three principal lines of border rivalry: (1) Franco-Spanish, (2) Anglo-Spanish, and (3) Anglo-French. An understanding of these rivalries requires a knowledge of colonial growth in its principal stages.

RIVALRIES IN SOUTH AMERICA. Map 3 shows that by 1519 the only European settlements in America were those of the Spanish in the West Indies and on the Isthmus of Panama. From this area Spain's colonies expanded rapidly. The Spanish occupation of South America proceeded upon two main lines of advance, both of which were led on by reports of gold in the Andean region. The first of these lines was down the Pacific from Panama. Beginning in 1522, the conquest had brought Lower (northern) and Upper (southern) Peru under subjection by 1533. Southward along the coast, Chile was conquered between 1540 and 1560. In this territory the Spanish met from the Araucanians the fiercest and most successful resistance encountered in America. Offshoots from the coastal conquest were made eastward towards Quito, Bogota, the Orinoco, and the Amazon. Meantime the quest for a strait led numerous voyagers along the Atlantic shore and up the La Plata, from which they explored and conquered the Argentine interior, 1534 to 1593. Here the eastern and western streams of advance met during the closing decades of the sixteenth century.

On the Atlantic coast of South America the Portuguese were slow to follow up their accidental discovery. Spanish advance in the La Plata country, however, stimulated activity on their part. Portuguese settlements began in 1531, and soon huge grants (capitanias) along the coasts were held by feudal overlords. The capitanias were bulwarks against Spanish, French, and Dutch aggression. At Rio de Janeiro French Huguenots attempted a colony but after ten years it succumbed to the Portuguese in 1567. The failure of the Huguenots at Recife, near Pernambuco, ended their attempts to settle in Brazil. The four northern capitanias were disputed by the Dutch West India Company, organized in 1621. For twenty-five years the company held territory north of Pernambuco, but after 1654 its sole mainland holding had been reduced to a part of Guiana. The region of modern Uruguay also was long in dispute. In 1680, the Portuguese, in a move to counter the Spanish in Buenos Aires (established in 1580) founded the settlement of Colonia do Sacramento. It was alternately Spanish and Portuguese until 1777, becoming definitely Spanish in that year.

* There was an extensive rivalry in the early seventeenth century between the English, Dutch, and French in Guiana. In 1654 the French settlements in Cayenne were taken over by

the Dutch, held a few years, and then restored. British interests in Guiana were ceded to Holland in 1667, at the time New Amsterdam was relinquished to England; and within ten years the Dutch were colonizing all of the present British and Dutch Guiana (Surinam).

RIVALRIES IN NORTH AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN. By 1543 the semi-civilized peoples of Central America and southern Mexico (Mayas and Aztecs) had been brought under Spanish control. By the end of the sixteenth century northern Mexico had been occupied. At the same time Spain expelled the French and occupied the north Atlantic seaboard (called Florida). In the seventeenth century the Spanish frontier pushed steadily northward. In the early eighteenth century Texas, southern Arizona, and Lower California were permanently occupied.

The sixteenth century French settlements in Florida were destroyed by the Spanish. Early in the seventeenth century the French colonized Acadia and the lower St. Lawrence Valley, and pushed their way up the Great Lakes. At the same time they established settlements on a number of the Lesser Antilles and Espanola (Haiti). From these two centers, Canada and the Antilles, they pushed into the Gulf of Mexico and the Mississippi Valley, exploring the tributaries of the Mississippi and establishing posts in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Arkansas. La Salle, in an effort to control the northern gulf shore for France, established a post in Texas at Matagorda Bay (1685).

English expansion in the Americas began in the later sixteenth century. The English sea rovers plundered Spanish commerce, explored the North Atlantic seaboard in an attempt to find a Northwest Passage to India, and tried to colonize Virginia (Roanoke Island). In the early seventeenth century permanent settlements began. By 1632 important beginnings had been made in the Bermudas, the Lesser Antilles, New England, Virginia, Maryland, and Newfoundland. For a time the Dutch and Swedish interposed a barrier to English expansion on the mainland, but these colonies were absorbed (1664-1667). In 1670 Hudson's Bay Company received from England a grant to the entire basin of Hudson Bay.

In the Caribbean area the second quarter of the seventeenth century witnessed a remarkable development. This region, which Spain had claimed but neglected, became the scene of French, British, and Dutch rivalry. They not only struggled with each other but also preyed upon Spanish commerce and settlements. Spain resisted, many times attacking and expelling the intruders from their strongholds; but the English finally succeeded in conquering Jamaica, a part of Honduras, and a number of islands. The Dutch obtained Curacao; and France acquired Martinique, Guadeloupe, and a part of Haiti.

After the Peace of Ryswick, Louis XIV. of France, by founding the new province of Louisiana (1699), proceeded to carry out La Salle's designs for control of the gulf. The capital, first established at Biloxi, was moved to Mobile, and later to New Orleans (1718). Foreign inroads in the Caribbean area and La Salle's settlements on Matagorda Bay had caused Spain to take defensive measures by occupying west-

ern Florida (Apalache; 1633) and, temporarily, eastern Texas (1690-1693). The founding of Louisiana by the French was answered by the occupation of Pensacola Bay (1698) and the re-occupation of eastern Texas in 1716. War broke out in Europe and spread to the colonies in 1719. The French captured Pensacola and drove the Spanish out of Texas, but Spain later re-occupied both regions. Until 1762 French traders and explorers continued to encroach upon the Spanish border, all the way from the Platte River to the Gulf of Mexico, while counter expeditions were made by the Spanish into the disputed regions.

Spain also clashed with England, not only in the Caribbean area, but on the North American mainland as well. The settlement of Virginia was protested and even resisted by Spain. When the Carolinas were founded, actual border warfare ensued. The founding of Georgia brought about additional border conflicts; but in spite of vigorous Spanish resistance, the border of Florida was pushed back beyond the Altamaha River (1739-1742). Finally the Seven Years' War, 1756 to 1763, witnessed the cession to England of the remainder of Florida, an area which once had extended indefinitely up the Atlantic seaboard. At the same time French Louisiana was divided between England and Spain, bringing the two countries face to face on the Mississippi.

The keenest rivalry for colonies in North America was between the French and the English. As early as 1613 New Englanders captured a French settlement on the coast of Maine. A few years later the English captured Port Royal and Quebec, but restored them in 1632. (The early rivalry in the Caribbean has already been noted.) Between 1684 and 1697 the French of Canada made several effective raids on the Hudson Bay posts and on the New England settlements. In return the English again captured Port Royal and attacked the West Indian settlements; all conquests were restored in 1697. During Queen Anne's War, border raids again occurred on Hudson Bay and New England and an indecisive struggle took place in the West Indies. Port Royal was again captured by the English, and in 1713 France gave up all claim to Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay. Acadia and Newfoundland were the first permanent English conquests from the French on the mainland. In 1745, during King George's War, Louisburg was captured by the English but was restored in 1748.

The English advance in the interior resulted in rivalry on the Carolina-Alabama border, in the Cherokee country, on the New York border, and especially in the upper Ohio Valley. The establishment of rival posts here was followed by the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, resulting in the downfall of French power in North America. The spoils were divided between England and Spain, the French provinces east of the Mississippi falling to England, those west to Spain. France still retained the island of Miquellon and St. Pierre off the southern coast of Newfoundland, certain fishing rights north and east of Newfoundland, minor possessions in the West Indies, and part of Guiana.

The Russian advance into North America dates from Bering's explorations (1728-1742). They established fur trading posts on the Aleutian Islands and made voyages down the

American mainland. This advance by the Russians was one of the principal causes for Spain's movement into Alta California in 1769.

In the period between 1700 to 1763 the Western Hemisphere had undergone many political changes. In South America, Portugal had extended her territories westward to meet those of Spain. In North America, France practically disappeared as a power, ceding to Spain and England her mainland possessions. With the removal of French power in North America and the expulsion of the Spanish in Florida, the danger to the British colonies in these directions had been removed. This new sense of security in the colonies developed an independence of action which had a great bearing in their later decision to become independent of the mother country.

INSET MAP. Franco-Spanish competition was sharpest in the Texas region. This map of Texas in the eighteenth century shows the districts occupied by several native stocks, the principal centers of Spanish occupation, and the highways connecting the settlements.

MAP A7. COLONIAL COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES

In the early years of the colonies the population growth was very slow. By 1640 there were only 25,000 whites in British North America, mostly in New England and Virginia. In 1660 this number had increased to 80,000 and by 1690, the period of the first map, the population was 200,000. It was concentrated mainly on the coast regions from Maine to North Carolina. The tendency for settlement to extend inland along the river valleys during this period is shown by the settlement along the Hudson and Connecticut Rivers.

In later years, up to 1774, the area of settlement widened considerably. New England was fairly well occupied, and the colonizing movement extended up the Mohawk Valley. In the Middle Colonies the area of settlement extended to the Appalachians, with here and there some suggestions of breaking thru the ridges to the plains beyond. The tongues of settlement along river valleys were more evident in the second period than in the first. At this later date such isolated French outposts as Detroit, St. Louis, Vincennes, Kaskaskia, and Mobile also are designated as having been founded. By 1770 the population of the colonies had increased to two million.

During the early colonial days communications between points was mostly by water. Since the settlements were separated by vast stretches of unconquered wilderness, this was the easiest and safest mode of travel. The use of trails, especially by the Indians, led to their becoming the earliest land ways for the pioneers. Of these trails, the following were of special interest: (1) the trail from the Mohawk to Ft. Niagara; (2) the one from the Susquehanna, called the Kittanning Path, past the Indian village of that name to the present site of Pittsburgh; thence onward as the Pickawillany Path across the Scioto, where it intersected the Great Warrior Path leading southward from Lake Erie, to Pickawillany village on the upper Miami; and (3) the trail leading southward from the upper Roanoke along the "Great Valley". By 1774 there was a continuous road connection between the extreme northern and southern settlements. This road followed the

coast only for a portion of the distance, turning inland at Philadelphia and not making for the coast again until it reached South Carolina. This road connected with the important Indian trails.

In the early colonial days agriculture was the chief industry. The products grown were tobacco, grain, and rice; some cattle also were raised. In addition, there was a considerable trade in furs and skins. As the colonies developed and communication improved, the economic life of the people became more diversified. This was particularly true for New England, where agriculture, because of the infertile soil, was less productive than elsewhere.

With boundless forests it was natural that the colonists should seek to utilize these resources. The earliest industries connected with the forests were dressing of lumber, manufacture of masts, and staves, production of naval stores (consisting of pitch, turpentine, rosin, etc.) and shipbuilding. Exports of these articles were made to England, Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies. Shipbuilding, one of the most important industries, was chiefly located in New England. Bog iron was plentiful thruout the colonies. Even in the early days there had been some development of the iron industry. By 1774 it had made such great strides that the mother country, while seeking raw materials, sought to limit the importation of manufactured iron goods. Previous to the English settlement, English fishermen had realized the value of the New England fisheries and had established summer stations on the coast. To the New England colonists the rich fishing grounds were most valuable. Whaling too was engaged in but shortly after the date of the map (1774) the industry declined. Fur trading was of considerable importance. The competition for the fur trade was one of the main causes of the conflict with the French. As furs were only obtainable in the less accessible areas of the country, the trade furnished the incentive to exploration and settlement.

The ports of New England became the chief centers of colonial commerce. Until 1750 Boston was the most important seaport, Newport ranked second, followed by New York. Philadelphia, about the middle of the eighteenth century, became the leading seaport. Other ports of importance were those on Chesapeake Bay and Charleston. Some indication of the relative importance of colonial and foreign trade and direction of the commerce is shown on the second map by the width of the lines leading away from the ports. These lines show the relative importance of the colonial trade with Great Britain, with rest of Europe, and with the West Indies.

The interrelation of colonial trade with Great Britain and the West Indies is shown on the inset map. These routes, called the "Triangular Trades" because of their three points of departure, include the following: (1) the colonies to Great Britain, to the West Indies, and back to the colonies; (2) the colonies to the Mediterranean, to the West Indies, and back to the colonies; and (3) the colonies to Africa, to the West Indies, and back to the colonies. In the latter case rum was carried from the colonies to Africa where it was exchanged for slaves. The slaves were then taken to the West Indies where they were exchanged for molasses. The molasses was sent to the colonies, principally New England, where it was made into rum. A modification of these routes is found in a

quadrilateral route; namely, the colonies to Europe, to Africa, to the West Indies, to the colonies.

The yellow color on the map, stretching from the Wabash River over to and beyond the Mississippi, indicates the Prairie Area. In the westward expansion there was a curious notion held by the early settlers that these prairie areas were undesirable for settlement, because of the mistaken idea that land on which trees did not grow could not be fertile.

MAP A8. REVOLUTIONARY WAR 1775-1783

Thru a succession of restrictive laws, both commercial and political, all seeking to impose on them the will of the British government, the American colonies were led to active resistance in 1775. The attempt to regulate colonial trade, the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, and the series of regulations known as the Intolerable Acts (1774) were among the principal measures leading first to disagreement, then to armed resistance, and finally to armed rebellion.

Two additional factors which aided considerably in building up resistance to the mother country were the Proclamation Line of 1763 and the Quebec Act of 1774. The Proclamation Line, established after the victory over the French, marked the southern and western limits of the colonies. Settlement beyond this line was forbidden until further notice. The Quebec Act, shown by red band, extended Quebec southward to include most of the country north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi. It aimed to cut off the western extension of the northern colonies.

On the main map the thirteen colonies which revolted against Great Britain are shown in green. The areas of pink represent those regions which remained loyal to Great Britain; namely, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Florida. The area in buff is generally represented as the "Indian Country". The intervening area in ivory shows a section of the country which curiously enough was not covered by any of the official acts of demarcation. Louisiana, now in the possession of Spain, is colored yellow. The operations of both the British and the Americans, covering the period from 1775, with the opening shots at Lexington, to the final surrender of the British at Yorktown in 1781, are shown on both the main map and the insets.

In the first year of war, the British evacuated Boston and failed in their expedition against Charleston, but the American invasion of Canada also failed of its purpose. In the same year the colonies, thru the Continental Congress, declared the independence of the United States of America. During the next two years (1776-1778) most of the operations were on the Hudson and Delaware Rivers. The British attempt to break the American line in two by sending an army under Burgoyne thru Lake Champlain to the Hudson ended with Burgoyne's defeat at Saratoga. The attempt of St. Leger in his movement down the Mohawk Valley was no more successful and his defeat by Herkimer at Oriskany ended this double threat.

The war was carried into the West (1778-1780) by George Rogers Clark who, defeating the British under Colonel Hamil-

ton, captured Vincennes in 1778. In the South (1780-1781) the Americans, led by Gates and Green, caused the British, under Cornwallis, to retreat to Virginia. At Yorktown he was surrounded by the combined American and French forces of Washington and Rochambeau. A strong French fleet prevented the British army from retreating by sea. Caught in a trap, Cornwallis was forced to surrender, thus ending the War of Independence.

With the exception of the Central and Saratoga campaigns, the main map gives a general view of the operations of the war, bringing out their interrelation both as to place and time. The inset maps show in greater detail the main campaigns from Virginia northward; including all the Central and Saratoga campaigns. The western movements, indicated on the main map, call for special attention, as they were largely responsible for securing this whole area for the later expansion of the United States.

Altho the war was over, peace was not actually declared until 1783. At the peace conference the United States was represented by skillful diplomats and obtained a favorable treaty with Great Britain. The Treaty of Paris declared United States to be a free and independent nation with an area extending from Canada and the Great Lakes on the north to Florida on the south, and from the Atlantic on the east to the Mississippi River on the west. The Americans had good reason to be satisfied.

MAP A9. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION AND STATE CLAIMS 1776-1802

In order to prosecute the Revolutionary War, some form of central authority was needed. The necessary authority was embodied in the Continental Congress, a body made up of a single chamber of delegates from the various states. The great weakness of the Continental Congress was that it had no power to compel obedience to its call for men or money, or to carry out its decisions. Each state was independent and the decisions of the Congress were dependent upon the attitudes of the various states. The need for an effective central government was early evident. The "Articles of Confederation" were approved by the Congress in 1777, but not until a few months before the end of the war in 1781 were the Articles of Confederation finally approved by the states, Maryland being the last to ratify.

The weakness of the central government led to a movement for a firmer union of the states. In May 1787 a convention was called in Philadelphia to revise the Articles of Confederation. Instead of carrying out the intended revision, an entirely new plan of government was drawn up in the form of the Constitution. In September 1787 the Constitution was submitted to the states for ratification. In each state a convention was held to decide whether or not the state would ratify. Those favoring the new Constitution were known as the Federalists, while those opposing its adoption were known as the Anti-Federalists. Ratification by nine states was necessary for the adoption of the Constitution. The progress of ratification is shown on the map. The first six states to ratify were Dela-

ware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. The next three states were Maryland, South Carolina, and New Hampshire, thereby establishing the Union. Virginia and New York ratified after the Union had been assured. North Carolina and Rhode Island did not ratify until 1789 and 1790. The cities and towns in which the state conventions met to ratify the Constitution are shown on the map.

At the conclusion of the Revolutionary War, there were only six states having closed boundaries. These were New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. The remaining seven, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, were still pressing claims to areas extending far beyond the limits with which we are accustomed to associate their names. Inasmuch as many of these claims were conflicting and as the closed boundary states hesitated about entering a confederation with states which some day might become too powerful, the obvious solution was to yield the claims to the central government. A comparison of the dates on which the various states yielded these claims with the dates on which they ratified the Constitution bears out the fact that in the majority of cases the western claims of each state were given up prior to ratification by that particular state.

The following details brought out by the map should be noted: (1) The broken red line in Georgia represents the Proclamation Line of 1763. (2) the term, "Right of Soil", appearing in western New York (Map B), refers to the compromise reached between New York and Massachusetts in 1787. Massachusetts yielded its right of jurisdiction over the area to New York, but retained its right of ownership to the soil. (3) The Virginia Bounty Lands were those lands reserved by Virginia for her Revolutionary soldiers. (4) Clark's Grant refers to lands assigned to George Rogers Clark for his services in the conquest of Illinois.

INSET MAP. This map covers in a more detailed form the process of boundary adjustment and is largely self explanatory. The area known as the Western Reserve belonged to Connecticut until 1800. The "Fire Lands" were added to the Connecticut area by a separate grant of Congress. The Pennsylvania Triangle, that area which enabled Pennsylvania to reach Lake Erie, was bought by Pennsylvania from the federal government after Massachusetts, Virginia, and New York had yielded their claims. Of special interest is Mason and Dixon's Line. Thru popular usage, this line, determining the boundary between Pennsylvania on one side and Maryland and Virginia on the other, came to stand for the dividing line between the North and the South.

MAP A10. WESTWARD MOVEMENT

The westward movement is one of the most significant factors in our history. The first phases of this movement are covered on Map 7 which shows the frontier line just previous to the Revolution to have reached the Appalachians, even having broken thru in spots; such isolated outposts as Detroit, Kaskaskia, St. Louis, etc. also are indicated to have been in

existence. The difficulties imposed upon further western expansion by the physical nature of the country, particularly by the Appalachians, is brought out particularly well by the physical coloring of the present map.

Emigration to the West had many causes. Some had the spirit of the pioneer; the economic chaos resulting from the Revolution led many to seek their fortunes in the West; some desired to escape the more densely populated areas; some moved because of political differences and others because of religious opinions. To all, the West held out the promise of cheap land and more freedom. By 1790 there were about 200,000 people settled west of the Appalachians; in 1800 this had increased to over 380,000. The line of settlement by 1803 extended from the western boundary of Pennsylvania down the Ohio to the Mississippi and across Tennessee to the St. John River in Florida.

Population had not only increased and spread over wider areas but transportation had gradually improved. Some evidence of the development of the road system may be noted by comparing the present map with Map 7 which shows not only the lines of communication used by the Indians, but the beginning of the white man's road system and its tendency to follow the paths already blazed out by the natives. Section A of this map takes up the story of road development and carries it forward thru a period of about forty years. Of special importance was the development of a continuous road connection between the extreme northern and southern settlements, following the lowland all the way. Earlier the traveler from Philadelphia southward was forced to take a road that led into the mountains and along the Piedmont for a considerable distance. This new road, thru almost its entire length from Boston to Savannah, crossed the rivers at the points where rapids or falls mark the limit of navigation for boats coming up the river. The line formed by connecting these points along the rivers is called the "Fall Line" and is of great significance, for along it important cities sprang up, and these in turn helped to determine the course of this important road. In addition to the "Fall Line Road", it will be noticed that along the line of the Indian trail running thru the Great Valley and the Cumberland Gap (see Map 7), there now appeared the Wilderness Road. Also a main road leading thru the Appalachians to Pittsburgh had replaced the Kittanning Trail.

The second period (Section B), from 1803 to 1829, showed a very rapid development of the West. By the latter year settlements covered southern Indiana and Illinois and reached also up the Missouri and Arkansas Rivers. The South also had been fairly well settled. Along with settlement came the further development of roads. The Fall Line Road was extended from Augusta on towards New Orleans. A network of roads in the Ohio and Tennessee basins, together with the great road from Wheeling thru Zanesville and Cincinnati to St. Louis, were also constructed. The broken parallel line from Zanesville to Vandalia, representing an extension of the Cumberland Road, is later referred to as the National Road.

The Dismal Swamp Canal, in Virginia and North Carolina, was one of the first canals constructed in the United States (1794), altho the era of canal building did not actually begin until after the War of 1812. The Erie Canal was the most im-

portant canal project of this period. Successful from its inception, it became a great factor in developing the West, enabling the goods of that region to reach the coast points at greatly reduced rates. It served as a great economic bond between the East and the West. The success of the Erie Canal led other states, particularly Pennsylvania, to develop canals. The completed canals up to 1829 are shown on the map. The further course of internal improvements is shown on Map 13.

A summary of the whole westward movement can be found in the gradual shifting of the center of population (Section B). In 1790 the date of the first census, the center of population was on the eastern side of the Chesapeake Bay in Maryland. It continued to move steadily westward with very little variation north or south, showing about equal division of the emigrants into the two sections. By 1829 it was near the western edge of the Appalachians. The growth of population for this period may be traced on Map 25.

Along with the settlement of the West came political development. Out of the Territory Northwest of the River Ohio, created in 1787 after the conflicting state claims had been given up, were formed: Ohio in 1803, Indiana in 1816, Illinois in 1818, and Michigan Territory in 1805. South of the Ohio the territory was divided as follows: Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, Mississippi Territory in 1798, Mississippi in 1817, Alabama Territory in 1817, and Alabama in 1819.

Besides indicating the battlefields and forts, the following military movements of the War of 1812 are indicated on Section B of this map: The lines of march into Canada north-east of Lake Ontario, Harrison's route to Detroit and the Thames, the British route for attack on Washington and Baltimore, Jackson's route to New Orleans, and the British routes to New Orleans and Mobile. The naval engagements are represented on the inset map.

MAP A11. LOUISIANA PURCHASE AND CONTROVERSIES 1803-1819

The territorial expansion of the United States west of the Mississippi, especially as related to the complications arising out of the Louisiana Purchase and the controversies connected with the Oregon Country, are illustrated on this map, as is also the West Florida Controversy. At the same time the process of state-making east of the Mississippi, touched on in the two preceding maps, is clearly brought out and summarized. Vermont is shown to have come into the Union in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, Ohio in 1803, Indiana in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, and Alabama in 1819.

In considering the controversies over Louisiana Territory, one should have clearly in mind the geographical and historical data bearing on the early French explorations and claims to which Louisiana Territory owes its origin (see Maps 4, 5, and 6). The "Louisiana" of the present map represents only the western half of the original French Territory of Louisiana, the eastern half, except for the area around New Orleans, having been ceded to Great Britain in 1763 and passed on to the United States after the Revolution. The year previous to Britain's acquisition of the eastern part of Louisiana, France

had transferred New Orleans and all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi (the Louisiana of the present map) to Spain. By a secret treaty Spain surrendered Louisiana and New Orleans to France in 1800. Since the Mississippi formed the natural outlet for the western section of the United States, the possession of New Orleans by an ambitious foreign power was not looked upon favorably by the United States. Jefferson therefore sent commissioners to France with orders to buy the territory around New Orleans. Fortunately for the United States, Great Britain declared war on France in 1803. Pressed by need of funds to carry on the war against the British and also fearful that Louisiana might fall into the hands of the British, Napoleon sold the entire territory of Louisiana to the United States in 1803. The added territory more than doubled the area of the United States.

At the time when the western half of the Louisiana Territory passed from the French to the Spanish (1763), no agreement as to the precise location of the western boundary of Louisiana had ever been reached. When the territory passed from the French to the United States this undefined boundary at once became a matter of dispute between the United States and Spain. The natural boundary of Louisiana, and presumable southwestern limit of the expanded United States, was the divide between the drainage basin of the Mississippi and the rivers to the south and west. This controversy was ultimately settled by the treaty of 1819 between Spain and the United States. The northern boundary of Louisiana was settled by treaty with Britain in 1818.

As a result of local and international issues, the United States occupied West Florida between 1810 and 1813. This she felt justified in doing, as she considered it a part of the Territory of Louisiana. In 1819 all of Florida was acquired from Spain, including that section which had already been "annexed". When East and West Florida were acquired, the United States' claims to Texas were abandoned.

On the strength of Gray's discovery in 1792 and the explorations of Lewis and Clark 1804-1806, the United States laid claim to the basin of the Columbia. The British claims were based on Drake's voyage 1577-80 and the occupation of posts in Oregon by the Hudson's Bay Company, beginning in 1806-07. The agreement of 1818 between United States and Great Britain provided for joint occupation of this region by citizens of both countries. Spain's claims to the region, by reason of discovery, were abandoned in 1819.

It is interesting to note the rapid development and subdivision of the Territory of Louisiana after it passed into the hands of the United States. In 1804 it was divided into the District of Louisiana and the Territory of Orleans. A noteworthy change came about in 1812, when the state of Louisiana entered the Union and Missouri Territory was organized. In 1819 another forward step was taken when Arkansas Territory was formed.

The journeys of Zebulon Pike added much to the geographical knowledge of the times. In 1805-06 he attempted to find the source of the Mississippi River; but hampered by snow, he erred in choosing the exact lake which forms the source, it being in a cluster of lakes. In 1806-07 he explored the region between Louisiana and the old Spanish settlements in New

Mexico. Arrested by the Spanish for trespassing, Pike was escorted down into Mexico. Held prisoner for several weeks, he was allowed to return to the United States by way of Mexico during the summer of 1807.

MAP A12. TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS 1776-1866

The original United States consisted of thirteen states plus an unorganized area stretching from the Appalachians to the Mississippi (see Maps 4, 5, and 7). Its territorial expansion, from the recognition of its independence by Great Britain in 1783 to the rounding out of the Southwest thru the Gadsden Purchase in 1853, falls into a series of a few great acquisitions of territory. This expansion is traced on this map.

The first acquisition was Louisiana purchased in 1803 (see Map 11). The next was Florida. Originally in the hands of the Spanish, as a result of the expedition of Ponce de Leon in 1513, Florida passed to English in 1763, reverted to the Spanish in 1783, and finally East Florida was purchased by the United States in 1819. The controversy over West Florida is set forth on the inset of Map 11.

The next great accession was that of Texas, a province of Mexico since the declaration of Mexican independence from Spain in 1821. Texas had been settled largely by people from southern United States. At first these immigrants were welcomed, but the Mexican government later became alarmed by their rapidly increasing number and attempted to stem the tide. Conflict between these immigrants and the Mexican government was not long in breaking out. The American settlers won a striking victory over the Mexicans and established the Republic of Texas in 1836. They then proceeded to ask the United States either for annexation or for recognition as an independent republic. The annexation of Texas was one of the important issues of the election of 1844. The election decision being favorable to annexation, Texas entered the Union as a state in 1845. The boundary of Spanish Texas, the natural boundary, and the areas claimed by Texas all are indicated on the map.

In the new Northwest—the Oregon Country and British Columbia—Spain, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States had conflicting claims. Spain's claims were eliminated by the treaty of 1819; Russia relinquished hers in 1824. By the treaty of 1818 Great Britain and the United States agreed to the joint occupation of the territory. In the election 1844, when the Texas issue was placed before the American voters, the question of Oregon also assumed considerable importance, giving rise to the cry, "Fifty-four forty or fight." In 1846 an arrangement was made with Great Britain whereby the 49° parallel was accepted as the dividing line between the two nations.

The compromise reached in the Oregon case made it easier for the United States to come to an issue with Mexico over the Texas question. Mexico had bitterly opposed our annexation of Texas, the independence of which she had never recognized. In addition, there was a dispute over the correct boundary of Texas. Events finally led to war with Mexico

(1846-1848). According to the terms of peace, Mexico recognized our annexation of Texas, accepted the Rio Grande as the southern boundary of that state, and ceded to us California and New Mexico. Part of the southern boundary of the Mexican Cession was later adjusted by the Gadsden Purchase in 1853. This strip was purchased from Mexico in order to provide a convenient route for a railroad.

The treaty at the close of the Revolutionary War did not clearly define the northeastern boundary of the United States. There were frequent disputes between Maine and New Brunswick. This boundary was settled by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty in 1842. Also settled at that time was the boundary from Lake Huron to the Lake of the Woods. The line from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains had been fixed at 49° north latitude by the treaty of 1818. The only remaining controversy was over the San Juan water boundary, this was settled in 1872. Since that date adjustments of only a very minor nature have been made in international boundaries.

MAP A13. LAND AND WATER ROUTES 1829-1860

The United States by 1829 was roughly divided into three sections—the North, South, and the West. The North included New England and the states of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware. It was the most thickly settled section of the country and at this time had a population of almost six million. Its manufactures and wealth made it the dominant section of the country. The South included the eight states from Maryland to Louisiana, plus Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, and the Territory of Arkansas. This area contained some six million people. It was less advanced than the North, had a large slave population, and had little manufacturing. The West began on the borders of New York and Pennsylvania and included the relatively new states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and the Territory of Michigan. This area had a population of over a million. The West, populated mostly from the North, developed the attitudes of the North.

CANALS. A great step in the development of adequate communication between the different parts of the country was the system of canals which were constructed after the War of 1812. The most outstanding undertaking was that of the Erie Canal which connected the Hudson River with Lake Erie. The success of this venture led to further increase in canal construction. The development of canal transportation had great economic as well as political importance. It not only resulted in reduced trade rates, stimulated the growth of cities, and hastened the settlement of the West; but, by linking the Mississippi Valley with the Northeast, the tie that bound this region with the South was loosened. By 1830 the country was entering the railroad building era. Canals, tho still being built, were about to lose their early importance.

RAILROADS. While the great age of railroad building did not actually begin until after the Civil War, by 1840 the United States already had a mileage of 2818. By 1860 this had increased to the considerable figure of 30,635 miles. In the decade from 1840 to 1850, railroad building was most rapid in New

England and the middle states. Between 1850 and 1860 an extensive system was developed in the South, there was rapid expansion in the West, and the Northeast continued to build lines. By 1853 Chicago and New York were connected, and in the following year the Mississippi was reached. In 1855 St. Louis had rail communication with New York; St. Joseph on the Missouri River was the farthest point reached by 1860. Chicago and New Orleans were by this time in direct communication and one could also travel directly from New York to Washington down the "Great Valley" to Chattanooga and Memphis. On the Pacific Coast the short road near Sacramento, California, indicates the beginning of railroad building in the Far West.

One of the most striking characteristics of railroad development was the emphasis on east-west construction because of the emigration movement. Altho the South had developed a considerable railroad system, the North possessed a striking advantage in transportation facilities. The deficiency of direct rail communication between the North and the South suggests the lack of intercourse which was one cause of misunderstanding between the two sections. The close relationship between the lines of the railroads and the old trails and roads (see Maps 7 and 10) should be noted. They testify to the fundamental influence of topography in fixing the lines of communication, which in turn influence the establishment of cities and towns as commercial, industrial, or cultural centers.

WESTERN TRAILS. Attention should be given to the various routes of the explorers and the great trails which played such an important role in the development of the Far West. These trails and routes include: (1) Jedediah Smith's Route to and from California; (2) Jedediah Smith's Oregon Route; (3) Santa Fe Trail; (4) Oregon Trail; (5) Bonneville's Trail on the Platte; (6) Bonneville's Far Western Trail; (7) Walker's Route; (8) Fremont's Second Expedition; (9) Mormon Trail; (10) California Trail; and (11) Pony Express Trail.

Some of the interesting features of the far western trails were: (1) their points of departure on the Missouri; (2) the tendency of so many to follow the valley of the North Platte to the South Pass; (3) the two mountain crossings of the Santa Fe Trail; and (4) the fan-like manner in which, after leaving the South Pass, the trails and routes branch out northwest, west, and southwest.

MAP A14. MEXICAN WAR AND COMPROMISE OF 1850

From 1820 to 1850 the settlement and political organization of the territories of the United States went steadily forward.

During this period the process of state and territory formation was as follows:

Maine, admitted out of Massachusetts, 1820.

Missouri, admitted out of Missouri Territory, 1821. (The western part of the former Territory of Missouri was left without any government until 1854.)

Arkansas, out of Territory of Arkansas, 1836. (The western end of the territory, which was a part of the unorganized portion of the former Territory of Missouri, was occupied by

Indian tribes and called the Indian Territory, tho it had not territorial government.)

Michigan, out of part of the Territory of Michigan, 1837.
Florida, out of the Territory of Florida, 1845.

Texas, the former independent republic of Texas, 1845.

Iowa, part of Territory of Iowa, 1846.

Wisconsin, part of Territory of Wisconsin, 1848.

California out of territory conquered from Mexico, without passing thru organized territorial government, 1850.

Minnesota Territory, created in part out of the unorganized territory, 1850.

Notwithstanding the political unity of the country, the lack of similarity between the different sections, in both economic and social development, produced sectional differences, some of which assumed national importance. One question in particular caused disagreement, that being slavery. In the earlier days of the republic, slavery was permitted thruout the Union. In the northern states, however, slavery proved to be unprofitable and laws were passed prohibiting slave holding. This went on until by 1819 there were an equal number of slave and free states—eleven of each.

The slavery issue gradually developed into one of considerable magnitude. Feeling ran so high that when Maine asked for admission as a free state, Congress found it necessary to enact the famous Missouri Compromise of 1820. This compromise provided for the admission of Maine as a free state but balanced it by admitting Missouri as a slave state. Slavery, however, was prohibited in all the rest of Louisiana Purchase Territory north of the southern boundary of Missouri—36° 30' north latitude. Slavery was strenuously defended in the South, while agitation against it persisted in the North, the latter was vigorously opposed to the extension of slave holding territory, the former favored such extension with equal intensity. When Texas was admitted to the Union in 1845, the South saw an opportunity to extend slave-holding territory. The great size of Texas, an area which might be carved into several states, gave promise of adding to the voting strength of the slave-holding South. The North was appeased somewhat by the acquisition of Oregon the following year, further extending the area of free territory which might in time be formed into free states.

With the annexation of Texas there developed a boundary dispute with Mexico. The dispute developed into war. The forces of Taylor were successful along the Rio Grande and in northern Mexico. Scott occupied Vera Cruz and Mexico City. In the West, Fremont took possession of California and Kearny occupied New Mexico and Arizona. Mexico ceded to the United States an area including California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona (see Mexican Cession, Map 12).

The Mexican Cession reopened the slavery controversy. The North opposed opening this new area to slavery; the South desired to extend slavery into the new territory. Before the signing of the peace treaty between Mexico and United States, gold was discovered in California. This discovery led to the rapid settlement and political organization of California, and in 1849 a state constitution was framed with a provision against

slavery. The dispute over the admission of California led to the Compromise of 1850 which provided that California should be admitted as a free state and that the territories of Utah and New Mexico should be organized without mention of slavery. The compromise also provided for an effective fugitive slave law.

The division of the country into free states and territories and slave states and territories is shown on this map. The principal slave routes, together with chief slave centers and also the "underground" routes of fugitive slaves, illustrate some aspects of the slave traffic at this time. The historical aspects of the slavery movement and its abolition are shown in greater detail on Maps 36 and 37.

MAP A15. SECESSION 1860-1861

Between 1850 and 1860 the United States continued to make remarkable progress. This progress was confined, however, largely to the North and West, slavery having put the South out of harmony with the other sections of the country. As time went on the chasm which separated the South from the rest of the country continued to deepen, forecasting the great tragedy which was about to overtake the nation.

When the Compromise of 1850 was made it was thought final and beyond repeal. Anti-slavery feeling in the North, however, was soon stimulated by the manner of operation of the fugitive slave laws after 1850. In 1854 the Kansas-Nebraska Act, repealing the Missouri Compromise and organizing Kansas and Nebraska into two new territories, was passed. According to Douglas and others, the aim of the act was not to legislate slavery into the territories, but to permit them to handle their affairs and regulate their institutions in their own way.

As the Kansas-Nebraska Act left the question of slavery in the territories up to the people, aggressive movements to influence the slavery decision were made by the North and West on the one hand and the South on the other. Two governments, one anti-slavery, the other pro-slavery, established themselves in the Territory of Kansas, leading to guerilla warfare. The agitation on the slavery issue was further heightened by the Dred Scott Decision which held that Congress had no right to forbid slavery in the territories, and consequently the Missouri Compromise had been unconstitutional. That the pro-slavery force felt the increasing power of the anti-slavery forces is shown by the fact that, while in 1850 the representation of slave and free states was practically equal, in 1860 the free states had 36 senators and the slave states only 30. In the House there were 147 members from free states and 90 members from slave states. Thus political power was in the hands of the free states.

In the presidential campaign of 1860, slavery and secession were the great issues. The southern Democrats warned the nation that secession would follow if the principle of slavery was challenged. Nevertheless, Lincoln, running on an anti-slavery platform, was elected, altho the combined opposition received over 900,000 more votes. Altho Lincoln affirmed that he would not interfere with slavery where it existed already, fear in the South led to a secessionist movement. Led by South Carolina, the states of Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas seceded from the Union before Lincoln

had been inaugurated in 1861. These states formed themselves into the Confederate States of America. Attempts at compromise were made but they were of no avail.

Thruout the seceding states United States property, such as mints, arsenals and forts, was seized by Confederate forces; however Union authorities were advised to maintain peace until the new administration of Lincoln should come into office. The spirit of discussion between the North and South soon passed into open hostilities. Shortly after Lincoln had taken office the Union authorities started an expedition to provision Fort Sumter. This attempt brought on a Confederate attack; and on April 14, 1861, Fort Sumter surrendered to the Confederacy. This was the beginning of the Civil War. With the call for volunteers by Lincoln, the border states of Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia cast in their lot with the seceding states; but the upper tier of border states, including Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware, remained loyal to the Union.

The South opened the struggle against a superior opponent. In 1860 the United States had a population of 31,000,000 of which 9,000,000, including slaves, lived in the eleven seceding states, while 22,000,000 lived in the twenty-three northern states (including territories). With larger man power, greater facilities for the making of munitions and supplies, and greater wealth, the superiority of the North was overwhelming.

MAP A16. CIVIL WAR

The first serious battle between the Union and Confederacy was at Bull Run, south of Washington. It ended in the defeat of the Union forces. This defeat brought home to the Union the need for better preparation for the war and also the knowledge that the South could not be conquered in a short time. Congress, therefore, voted to raise an army of 500,000 men and ample funds for war purposes.

The war strategy of the Union undertook first to blockade the Confederate ports. This blockade was to have the effect of cutting off the South from the markets of Europe, including England which imported cotton from the South to the amount of \$200,000,000 in 1860. The Confederates believed England would not tolerate any such blockade of her trade and looked to that country for support. The second point of Union strategy was to open the Mississippi. Controlling the Mississippi, the South could use the river as a trade channel thru its territory. In the hands of the North it would provide an outlet for the commerce of the West and Northwest, would enable the Union to split the Confederacy, could be used by the Union navy for concentrating troops in the rear of the Confederates and in transporting supplies, and would prevent the South from getting supplies from west of the Mississippi. The third important war plan of the Union was to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy. The fourth line of Union strategy was to drive a wedge thru Confederate territory across Georgia to the sea.

The Union blockade of the ports of the Confederacy, involving over 3500 miles of coastline, meant the creation of an immense fleet. At first the blockade could not prevent foreign or Confederate vessels from running the blockade; but as the Union fleet was increased, the blockade became more and

more effective. Confederate cruisers also managed to harass Union commerce. The sea warfare between the North, and the South led to the introduction of armored vessels in warfare. The Merrimac and Monitor changed the course of naval history.

From a military point of view the South at the beginning of the war held the advantage. Ably led, possessing ample military supplies, occupying a country difficult to attack, having many ports open to receive world trade, and inhabited by a people fired with enthusiasm for their cause, the Confederacy entered the war determined to maintain its newly declared position. Against the comparative readiness of the South to engage in warfare, the North had insufficient military forces and a totally inadequate naval force for the accomplishment of the task of overcoming the South. During the first year of war about 660,000 troops were raised by the North and probably about 500,000 by the South.

Within a few months after the beginning of the war, the blockade by sea had begun to seriously affect the South; and in 1862, the second year of the war, the Union forces had begun to move south. In this year New Orleans was captured by the Union forces. The movement to drive a wedge along the Mississippi and so divide the Confederacy also made considerable progress. In the next year, with the fall of Vicksburg and Port Hudson, the control of the Mississippi was in the hands of the North. With this part of the campaign plan completed, the Confederacy was cut in two, thus depriving the South of a valuable territory for source of supplies and war materials.

The Union troops gradually pushed the lines of military occupation farther into the South. As the war neared an end, the lines of Union control had not only been extended down the Mississippi, but over much of the coastal areas as well, the latter testifying to the control of the sea by the Union and the effective use made of it. When Lee began his final campaign in 1865, not a single major seaport along the whole coast from the Mississippi to the Chesapeake remained in the hands of the Confederacy. They were cut off completely from all intercourse with the outside world and were thrown back on their own inadequate resources. The hopelessness of the situation is brought home still further by a study of Sherman's "March to the Sea." By the beginning of 1865 he had cut straight thru Confederate territory and was already turning northward from Savannah. Sherman's march thus brought about the second partition of the Confederacy. In April and May of 1865 the last of the Confederate armies surrendered and the presidential proclamation of amnesty of May 29, 1865 marked the end of the Civil War.

INSET MAPS. Included on this map are three insets depicting three important campaigns of the war, the Vicksburg campaign of Grant; the Atlanta campaign of Sherman; and the Virginia campaigns, including that which ended in Lee's surrender.

MAP A17. ABOLITION AND RECONSTRUCTION

Reconstruction was a matter of making social, economic, and political readjustment. The object of these four maps is to emphasize the problems of the period. The war and abolition

destroyed much of the wealth of the South, while the conditions under which reconstruction took place retarded economic development. Besides bringing out the differences in economic conditions before and after the war, the maps deal with the process of liberating the Negroes and making slavery illegal, with the readmission of the seceding states to the Union, and with the reassertion by whites of social and political leadership.

ABOLITION. The overthrow of slavery was accomplished by various means: federal law, federal proclamation, state action, and federal constitutional amendment. In 1862, Congress passed laws prohibiting slavery in the territories and the District of Columbia. Within the field of the map, the territorial act applied to the unorganized region called Indian Territory and to Nebraska Territory, tho in the latter slavery had been a purely nominal system. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, was an exercise of his war power; it declared free the slaves in all the regions then in revolt. Tennessee and portions of Louisiana and Virginia were excepted because these sections had been reconquered and were under Union military government. West Virginia was also excepted; the counties of this part of Virginia had refused to follow the rest of the state in secession and had set up a Union government. They were recognized as a new state and admitted on June 19, 1863, with a constitution providing for gradual emancipation.

While the war was still in progress Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana, with Union governments recognized by Lincoln, adopted constitutional amendments abolishing slavery; however, except in the case of Tennessee, these governments were not in control of the state as a whole. Maryland became free by constitutional amendment, and Missouri, first by ordinance and then by amendment. After the war was over, as a step in reconstruction, the rest of the seceded states adopted amendments declaring slavery illegal. Except in Texas, this was done before the Thirteenth Amendment went into effect. This amendment abolished slavery everywhere, freeing the slaves in Kentucky and Delaware, and making the gradual emancipation in West Virginia immediate.

RECONSTRUCTION. Congress refused to recognize the war-time reconstruction governments mentioned above. The one in Tennessee continued, however, and the state was readmitted without other organization after it ratified the Fourteenth Amendment. The rest of the reconquered states were placed under military government, and gradually reorganized and admitted under the Reconstruction Acts. These acts prescribed conditions that put the readmitted states under radical control, a combination made up largely of Negroes and their white leaders, the so-called carpet-baggers.

Outside of the area of intense cotton production, where the proportion of Negroes in the population was not high, the whites generally recovered control more quickly. The means employed by the whites to put out the radicals were not all legal; the Negroes were intimidated by organizations like the Ku Klux Klan, and there were many racial clashes. The principal areas affected by this movement were as follows: Memphis and New Orleans, 1866; Mobile, 1867; Camilla, 1868; various parts of Tennessee, 1869; North Carolina, 1870; South Carolina, 1871; Central Arkansas, 1872; Arkansas (Brooks

Baxter War), New Orleans (the White League rising), Cou-smatta, and Vicksburg in 1874; Clinton, 1875; and Hamburg, 1876.

COTTON PRODUCTION. In the mind of the ante-bellum southerner, cotton and slavery were inseparable. The states which produced the greatest amount of the staple were also the strongest in slaves; thus, Mississippi and Alabama, which produced over 40% of the cotton in 1859, had almost 30% of the slave population in 1860 and half of their own population was slaves. In 1869 these states produced only 45% of their 1859 crop and only a third of the total crop. The same labor was there, but it was disorganized and demoralized, largely because of the political conditions. The system under which it had previously produced had been destroyed and an efficient substitute not yet built up. The areas showing an increase of cotton in 1869 produced but a small percentage of the total crop. They were generally in the sections where slavery had been less developed and the land less favorable for extensive production. In outlying regions, such as Texas, western Arkansas, and Florida, the increase was largely due to new settlements. Tobacco was also an important southern product, but its production was not so completely tied up with slavery.

PER CAPITA WEALTH. The South had been the field of the war; not only had the active wealth been expended for military purposes, but the movements of the armies and the raids had destroyed much of the landed property that, especially in an agricultural region, was necessary for the resumption of production. Also, the Negroes had ceased to be wealth producers, and abolition had swept away the whole of their estimated value, as given on the map. They remained, of course, as possible laborers; but for the time being their value as wealth producers was much diminished.

The South had always had less per capita wealth than the North, and the war emphasized the difference. The relation between the decrease in cotton production and the decrease in wealth, as well as the relation to the per capita wealth in 1870, is made evident by the maps. Note also the relation between the number of former slaves and the areas of army movements, as given on Map 16.

MAP A18. WESTERN STATEHOOD AND LAND GRANTS

In 1860 settlers had occupied the section of Nebraska Territory just beyond the Missouri and had settled also in the eastern part of Kansas. On the Pacific, California and Oregon had attained statehood and settlement was rapidly increasing in these new states. In 1870 there were some 7,000,000 people (in addition to 250,000 Indians) in the territory between the Mississippi and the Pacific Coast.

The discovery of gold in California in 1849 led to the rapid development of that area. In 1859 a great strike of silver was made at the Comstock Lode mine in Nevada. Later, gold was discovered in Montana and copper in Arizona. Colorado attracted thousands in the search for rich metals, and the rich ores of the Black Hills drew great numbers. The great open stretches of the West were suitable for stock raising and great ranches developed. The growing scarcity of good land in

the East sent many farmers to the cheaper lands of the West and in time farming assumed considerable importance. This influx of hunter, trapper, miner, stock raiser, and farmer led to the development of a number of settlements, many developing into cities of considerable size.

In 1860 the Far West had a definite territorial organization, but increasing population necessitated better organized and more representative government. Colorado, Nevada and Dakota were made territories in 1861; Arizona and Idaho were created territories in 1863, and further adjustments were made by the creation of the territories of Montana in 1864 and Wyoming in 1868. Further political development came with the recognition of statehood. Nevada was admitted to the Union in 1864, Nebraska in 1867, Colorado in 1876, North and South Dakota, Washington, and Montana in 1889, Idaho and Wyoming in 1890, Utah in 1896, Oklahoma in 1907, and to complete the Union of 48 states, Arizona and New Mexico became states in 1912.

In 1860 transportation thru the Far West was by pack train, wagon, and stage coach. Railroads had barely crossed the Mississippi, altho a railroad did reach St. Joseph on the Missouri. On the Pacific Coast a small beginning in railroad building was made in California. The first great improvement in transportation in the Far West came in 1860 with the establishment of the Pony Express between St. Joseph, Missouri, and Sacramento, California (see Map 13). Following the Pony Express came the telegraph, then the railroad.

RAILROAD GRANTS. The Pacific Coast was far removed from the East. If the West were to be developed rapidly, transportation had to be improved. With the idea of bringing the East and West in closer communication, Congress in 1862 made great grants of public lands to aid in the building of certain specified railroads from Lake Superior, Omaha, and Kansas City to the Pacific Coast. Railroad land grants had, however, been made in the Middle West before this date in order to aid the building of railroads. The circumstances or conditions under which they were made were as follows: (1) the system of aiding railroads, by granting them strips of public land along their line, began in 1850 when a grant was made to the state of Illinois to be transferred to the Illinois Central Railroad. (2) In this and most later grants was inserted the clause that the road must be completed within a specified time or else the grant would be forfeited. (3) In all the eastern grants the states received the lands and passed them on to the railroads. (4) The roads received the alternate "sections," that is, half of the mile square checkerboard units within the belt of the grant. (5) The land grant extended a specified number of miles on each side of the track. (6) If any of these squares were already taken up, the road might substitute equal areas in other government lands. (7) In a very few cases the government lent money to land grant railroads.

Immense land grants were made in the Middle West. The only such grant in Illinois went to the Illinois Central; but there was a network of land grants in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and several grants in Missouri. Most of these were in timber or grain growing areas and hence of great value. In Indiana and Ohio the land was generally in private

hands before the era of railroad grants began, but both states received early grants for roads and canals. These, however are not shown on this map. In the South extensive land grants were made in Florida; Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas. None were offered in Texas, because the public lands there were retained by the state when it came into the Union; and none in Kentucky and Tennessee, because there was practically no federal public land left in those states when the railroad building era arrived.

Among the most important land grants were the transcontinental grants for the four lines running to the Pacific Ocean; namely, (1) Union Pacific and Central Pacific, with which were connected the Kansas Pacific and branch lines from Plattsmouth, Atchison, and Sioux City; (2) Northern Pacific; (3) Atlantic and Pacific—this line had a double width land grant thru New Mexico and Arizona but forfeited its California grant; (4) Texas Pacific, a grant outside of Texas which was later forfeited. Another group of land grants was for the California and Oregon lines: (1) Southern Pacific, from the Colorado River to San Francisco; (2) California and Oregon, from San Francisco to Portland; (3) Northern Pacific, from Portland to Tacoma.

THE INDIANS. In the conquest of the Far West there was considerable trouble with the Indians, the original inhabitants of the continent. In 1862, 1866, and 1876 there were cases of open warfare between them and the government forces. Trouble practically ceased in 1886, when a policy of settling the Indians on reservations was adopted. After a time they were encouraged to hold individual plots of land, make their own livings, and gain an education. Those living in tribes had not been allowed citizenship before 1924, but in that year it was granted to all Indians in the United States. The Indian reservations are mostly in the West and Southwest; only a few are east of the Mississippi.

MAP A19. LINES OF TRANSPORTATION

The development of transportation in the United States has been historically treated in various maps in this atlas. On Map 7 are shown the principal Indian trails and the development of the colonial road system. On Map 10 the further development of the roads of the East and Middle West up to 1829 is covered, as is also the development of canals as a means of communication. The next period (1829-1860), illustrated on Map 13, shows the decline of the canal as a means of transportation and the rise of the railroad. Beyond the Mississippi, lines of transportation thru the undeveloped and often unexplored Far West had yet to be developed. In this territory pack train, wagon, stage coach, and "Pony Express" were still the means of communication.

In 1829 the first railroad in the United States was built; at the present day about 250,000 miles of railroad are in operation. As a means of transportation the railroads, especially for heavy freight, are still by far the principal agent of communication; but the development of the automobile has increased the use of road transportation, and the progress of aviation has led to the chief centers of this country being connected with airplane service. Even the canal and river

transportation, now somewhat of a dormant element in communication, is undergoing a new development. The present map is intended to show only the chief lines of railroad transportation, the movement of coastal sea traffic, and the developed internal waterways.

The great railroad systems of the United States, with their points of concentration at Chicago, St. Louis, Minneapolis, etc., and in the principal seaports, have been built up by means of consolidations, there having been no development of coast-to-coast railroad systems in the United States comparable to the great transcontinental systems of Canada, the Canadian Pacific and the Canadian National. One of the leading systems between the Atlantic seaboard and the Middle West is the New York Central Lines, connecting New York and Boston with Buffalo, Cleveland, Chicago, and other Mid-West points. This route in part follows the pre-railroad routes from the seaboard to the interior. The Pennsylvania Lines is another trunk system connecting the Atlantic Coast with the Middle West. Beginning at New York it connects Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington with points in the Middle West as far as Chicago. The Southern Railway serves part of the South. The Illinois Central, and the Louisville and Nashville are the principal north and south lines connecting Chicago and southern points either directly or thru connecting lines. Other important roads in the territory east of Chicago are the Baltimore and Ohio, Erie, Wabash, Chesapeake and Ohio, Seaboard Air Line, Atlantic Coast Line, etc.

The area of the United States west of Chicago is served by a number of great railroad systems. In this territory we have the Chicago and North Western, Burlington, Rock Island and others. The Northwest is served by the Northern Pacific, Great Northern, and the Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul and Pacific. The direct route from Chicago to San Francisco is the Union Pacific, connected on the east with the Chicago and North Western. The Union Pacific with the Central Pacific formed part of the first transcontinental system, completed in 1869. The two great systems serving the Southwest and linking the Middle West with the Pacific Coast are the Santa Fe and the Southern Pacific. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe runs from Chicago to San Francisco and Los Angeles. The Southern Pacific main line has its eastern terminal in New Orleans, runs west to Los Angeles and San Francisco, and north to Portland.

INTERNAL WATERWAYS. On Maps 10 and 13 the rise and decline of canals and waterways is traced. The changed economic order, geographical limitations of waterways, rise of new industrial centers, and other causes led to the domination of the railroad and the consequent decline of the slower but relatively cheap water transportation. Among the principal waterways in the United States still in use are: the Mississippi-Missouri, Ohio, Cumberland, Tennessee, Arkansas, Red, Columbia, Sacramento, Hudson, and Delaware Rivers and the Cape Cod, Erie, Welland, Dismal Swamp, Chicago Drainage, and Sault Ste. Marie Canals.

Commerce on the Great Lakes has assumed tremendous proportions, the iron ore, coal and grain traffic being very large. In recent years the federal government has spent great sums in a program of internal waterway improvement. In con-

nection with future improvement, the St. Lawrence-Mississippi project offers interesting problems from a geographic and economic viewpoint. The connecting links of this project are well illustrated on the present map.

MAP A20. RESOURCES AND CONSERVATION

The economic progress of the United States has been very rapid. In the output of its mines, products of its forests, crops, manufactured goods, extent of railroads, and volume of commerce and wealth, this country has assumed a leading place among the nations of the world. On the present map are illustrated the larger phases of this development.

AGRICULTURE. The pre-eminence of the United States in agriculture is due to various causes, among them being great size of country, favorable climate, energy of people, freshness of soil, good transportation, and convenient markets. No other country produces such a variety of products. It grows almost two-thirds of the world's corn crop, one-half of the cotton, one-third of the tobacco, one-fourth of the oats, and one-fifth of the wheat. This map shows the general distribution of the agricultural areas of the United States; the actual distribution of crops is shown on Map 22. The most productive agricultural areas are those east of the 100° meridian and in scattered sections on the Pacific Coast. The higher lands of the West, shown on the map as forests and grazing areas, are less productive in food crops but well adapted for stock raising and forest products.

MINERAL PRODUCTION. In importance the chief metal products are as follows: iron, copper, silver, lead, gold, and zinc. Iron ore is widely distributed in the United States, but six-sevenths of the entire output comes from the western end of Lake Superior, principally Minnesota. Another large producing area is near Birmingham, Alabama. Only a small amount is produced west of the Mississippi River. In copper production it leads every other country, producing more than one-half the world's total output. Arizona, Utah, and Montana are the leading copper producing states. Our country is not only the largest producer of lead but is also the largest consumer of lead in the world. Missouri and Idaho are the largest producing states, followed by Utah, Colorado, and Oklahoma. The greatest deposits of zinc are found in the Joplin district, which includes adjacent parts of Missouri, Kansas, and Oklahoma. Other producing states are New Jersey, Montana, Utah, Idaho and Colorado. We produce and consume more zinc than any other country in the world. Gold and silver also are mined extensively, the United States ranking next to South Africa in gold production and next to Mexico in the production of silver. California and Colorado are the leading gold producing states and Utah leads in silver production.

The principal fuel products of the United States are coal, oil, and natural gas. The country is rich in coal resources. It is mined in 27 different states and half of all the known coal of the world is located within its boundaries. A relatively small area in eastern Pennsylvania produces anthracite or hard coal (see map). The most important bituminous coal field is the Appalachian area which extends from Pennsylvania to Alabama. Seven states, including Pennsylvania, West Virginia,

Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, and Alabama, produce almost 90% of the total coal production. In oil production the United States is the chief world producer; over 70% of the crude oil is produced here. The Mid-Continent and California fields are the chief producers. Other important areas are the Appalachian, Gulf Coast, and Rocky Mountain regions. Economical transportation of the crude oil from the fields to refineries and industrial centers is made possible by an elaborate system of pipe lines. Associated with oil is natural gas.

FORESTS. When North American was first settled by the Europeans, forests covered half of its area. The rapid growth of population, the need for agricultural land, the use of wood for all kinds of purposes, the growth of the lumber industry, and the heavy export of timber has led to a depletion of our forest resources. Two-thirds of our forest lands have been cut over or burned out, and three-fifths of our merchandise timber has been used. The too rapid depletion of our forest resources has led to federal action in conserving the timber resources. Natural forests have been set apart on government-owned lands, mostly in the West, and additional areas have been purchased in the Appalachian and White Mountains for the development of national forests.

NATIONAL PARKS AND MONUMENTS. In line with the policy of conservation, the United States government has established national parks and monuments in order to preserve the nations unusual natural phenomena. These reserved lands are mostly in the West but recently a few national parks have been established in the East. Yellowstone is the largest and oldest of our national parks. The federal government has also established bird and game reserves to safeguard and preserve the wild life of certain areas.

INDUSTRIAL AREAS OF THE WEST. Owing to the fact that the large-scale map of Industrial United States (Map 21) shows only the area east of the Mississippi, the industrial development of the West is shown on this map. While agriculture, lumbering, mining, and stock raising are and always will be the principal industries of the West, a number of manufacturing and commercial centers have developed in the area. The growth of the Puget Sound cities, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Denver, Salt Lake City, Omaha, Kansas City, and the cities of the Mid-Continent and Gulf Coast oil fields all bears witness to the growing commercial and industrial interests of the West.

MAP A21. INDUSTRIAL UNITED STATES

In no other part of the world is there a more important industrial region than that of northeastern United States. In the area roughly bounded by Portland, Maine; Milwaukee, St. Louis, and Baltimore is concentrated two-thirds of the country's manufacturing output. Altho representing only about one-tenth of the nation's total area, three-fourths of the leading manufacturing centers are located here. Reasons for this concentration of manufacturing are many and varied. They include: great coal resources, abundant water power, convenient supplies of iron ore, an invigorating climate, plentiful food supplies, an adequate supply of labor and capital, nearness to markets, good transportation facilities, and the momentum of an early start.

An important feature illustrated on Section B is the rela-

tion between the development of industrial areas and the location of coal and iron. Where coking coal and iron could be easily brought together, iron and steel centers developed. Since the iron and much of the coking coal lie near Great Lakes transportation, iron and steel centers are concentrated about the Great Lakes. The movement of iron to coal and coal to iron on the Great Lakes is portrayed by means of lines running from the various lake ports. The black lines represent the movement of coal, while the red lines represent that of iron. The thickness of the lines indicate the comparative volume of traffic. The Pittsburgh-Youngstown-Lake Erie and the Chicago areas produce the major part of the nation's iron and steel. The great concentration of steel mills and blast furnaces in the former area is clearly brought out on the inset at the lower right hand corner of the map. With both coal and iron close at hand, Birmingham, Alabama has become the great iron and steel center of the South.

Associated with the iron and steel industry is the manufacture of machinery, which is quite general in the area of the Great Lakes, the Mohawk Valley, and along the eastern coastal area from Boston to Philadelphia. On the whole, being further from the iron and steel centers, the East specializes in the manufacture of machinery of high value in proportion to size. Much of the larger, heavier type machinery is produced in the Great Lakes region, especially farm implements. Another industry which is closely linked with the production of steel is the automobile. With but few exceptions it is located close to the steel centers. The automobile industry is centered in Detroit and the surrounding industrial areas.

The manufacture of textiles, one of the major industries of the United States, is concentrated largely in the eastern and southern areas, from Maine to Alabama (Section A of this map). Cotton manufacturing was for many years located chiefly in New England, but the South has made great gains in recent years. Nearness to the supply of cotton, abundant supply of labor, and an ample power supply furnished largely by the streams above the Fall Line, account for this shift to the South. The chief woolen manufacturing centers remain in the Northeast, the principal distribution centers being in New England and Pennsylvania. Silk manufacturing is centered principally in eastern Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and in the metropolitan area of New York City. The manufacture of clothing is centered in regions of dense population. Consequently New York City leads in production, followed by Chicago. Other important distribution centers include Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati and Rochester. The boot and shoe industry of the United States was once confined largely to eastern New England. In recent decades, however, this area has had to meet increasing competition from centers which have developed in the Mid-West.

Because they are so closely identified with agriculture, meat packing and flour milling, two of the major industries of the Middle West, are covered on Map A22. Since the industrial development of Minneapolis, St. Paul, Chicago, East St. Louis, and several other areas is so directly connected with one or the other of these industries, Map A22 should be used in conjunction with Section B of this map. For industrial development in western U. S. see Map 20.

MAP A22. AGRICULTURAL UNITED STATES

On Map 20 the general distribution of land utilization in the United States is shown, but no attempt is made to depict any of the principal crop regions. This phase of the subject is covered here. On this map are indicated not only the corn, cotton, and wheat belts, etc., but also the latest data on two industries directly connected with agriculture, namely meat packing and flour milling.

Corn is the most important crop in the United States. It is grown by more farmers, occupies more land, and has a greater total value than any other crop. It is widely distributed; but the chief area of production is a stretch of land extending from central Ohio to Nebraska, a strip 200 miles wide and 800 miles long. Cotton is second in importance to corn, and is grown almost exclusively in the South. Wheat is the third most important crop and is grown principally in the northern states; North Dakota and Kansas are the leading wheat states.

Associated with wheat growing is the flour milling industry. The modern process of flour milling led to the elimination of the small local mills, and with the movement of the wheat belt to the West the milling centers located in the West. Buffalo and New York, nevertheless, have remained important milling centers; Minneapolis, however, is today the leading flour milling center. Other important centers are Kansas City, Chicago, St. Louis, Duluth, Louisville, Toledo, and Detroit. Seattle is an important milling center on the Pacific Coast.

Oats, while considerably larger than the wheat crop, is very much less important. It is a leading crop in some of the North Central states. Rye is grown on the more sandy areas of the North Central states but is not very important. Barley is also relatively unimportant as a cereal crop in the United States. It is grown chiefly in the Dakotas, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and the Pacific Coast.

The United States is the largest producer of tobacco in the world. North Carolina leads and is followed by Kentucky and Virginia. Sugar production in the United States is in the form of sugar beets and sugar cane. The greater part of sugar beet production comes from the West and is grown under irrigation. Colorado, California, Nebraska, Michigan and Utah are the leading producers. Cane sugar production in the United States is practically limited to Louisiana, the only place having the proper conditions for its cultivation. Fruit production in the United States is widely scattered. Regions of intense cultivation are found in western New York, eastern Pennsylvania, the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, western Michigan, eastern Washington, the Great Valley of California, southern California, and Florida. Oranges are the dominant fruit crop in the latter two areas, apples in eastern Washington, and grapes in the Great Valley of California.

In the animal industries, the United States plays a leading part. Beef cattle are raised in every part of the country but are most numerous in the upper Mississippi Valley, the Great Plains, and in parts of Texas. Swine are also raised, but half of the total is found in the Corn Belt states where corn is fed to the swine. Iowa is the leading hog-raising state. In number of sheep raised the United States is second only to Australia,

sheep being particularly well adapted to the dry lands of the West. Ohio is the leading eastern state in raising sheep. Associated with the animal industries are the slaughtering and meat-packing centers. These centers are mainly in the Middle West, Chicago being the great slaughtering and packing center.

The dairy industry in the United States is quite general, being closely associated with population. Certain areas, however, are specially favored. New York, with its favorable climate and topography, and accessible markets, used to be the chief dairying state, but this position has now been yielded to Wisconsin. While the fishing industry has never assumed the importance in the United States that it has in various other countries of the world, it is quite significant in several regions. The map shows whitefish and herring to be numerous in the Great Lakes; lobsters, cod, herring, halibut, and mackerel off New England; oysters along the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts; sponges around the Florida keys; and salmon, halibut and sardines along the Pacific.

Considerable tracts of land now valueless can be made fertile by bringing sufficient water to them. This is possible in limited areas by storing the water of the streams in reservoirs so that it can be used when needed. The principal irrigation projects in the United States are shown on the map. This is a problem peculiar to the West, inasmuch as all parts of the country east of the Mississippi have sufficient rainfall. These irrigated lands produce alfalfa, with fruits, cereals, sugar beets, and cotton as other products.

Agricultural colleges have greatly influenced the nature of agricultural activity thruout the country. For instance, the University of Wisconsin and Cornell University have had much to do with the leadership of Wisconsin and New York in dairying. The experiments carried on at Fort Collins have had a considerable effect on sugar beet culture in Colorado. The schools shown in the map are all Land Grant State Agricultural Colleges. Several states in the South have two, one for the whites and one for the Negroes.

MAP A23. UNITED STATES IN THE CARIBBEAN

Spain had gradually lost control of her vast holdings in the Western Hemisphere. Towards the end of the nineteenth century only Cuba, Puerto Rico, and a few lesser islands remained in her possession. In 1868 rebellion broke out in Cuba, smoldered for years, and finally peace was secured on promises of reform. As Spain did not redeem her promises, rebellion broke out again in 1895, this time forecasting the ultimate doom of the Spanish colonial empire.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Cuba became an important factor in the foreign relations of the United States, primarily because of its strategic location in the Gulf of Mexico in relation to the proposed canal across the Isthmus of Panama, but also because of our growing commercial relations in the Caribbean. As a result of local conditions in Cuba and the expressed sympathies of the American people for the native Cubans, the United States attempted to reach an agreement with Spain over reforms in Cuba. This attempt, however, was brought to an end by the sinking of the battleship Maine in the harbor of Havana in 1898. War was declared and as a

result Spain lost Cuba and Puerto Rico (also the Philippines and Guam in the Pacific), while the United States emerged with increased prestige among the nations of the world. The routes of the fleets in the Caribbean during the war are shown on the map.

After the conclusion of the war Puerto Rico became a territory of the United States. Cuba, however, was made a republic in 1902; but certain privileges in regard to treaty rights, debts, intervention, and naval stations were retained by the United States. Altho theoretically an independent nation, the limitations imposed by our government thru the Platt Amendment virtually made Cuba a protectorate of this country. As a result of its "good neighbor" policy, the United States in 1934 concluded a treaty with Cuba bringing the Platt Amendment to an end.

The so-called "doctrine of paramount interest" of the United States in the Caribbean has led this country to pursue an interested policy in that region. This policy has resulted in direct intervention by the United States in Caribbean affairs where its interests seem to be endangered. The boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela led the United States to adopt a positive attitude on European intervention; and, altho Great Britain secured the major part of her demands, the settlement showed the power of the United States in South America.

A treaty with Colombia in 1846 had gained for the United States the right of transport across the Isthmus of Panama. In 1901 the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty with Great Britain recognized the right of this country to build and operate a canal. Aroused over the delay in negotiations with Colombia on the canal issue, the state of Panama declared its independence on November 3, 1903. The new republic was recognized by the United States a few days later. On November 18 the republic of Panama granted to the United States, in return for an immediate payment of ten million dollars and an annual rental of a quarter of a million, absolute control over a ten mile strip of land thru which the canal was to run, the area now known as the Canal Zone. Because of American supervision, Panama may be said to be practically a protectorate of this country. The Panama episode caused great resentment in Colombia; in order to remove all misunderstanding, we made a payment of \$25,000,000 to Colombia in 1923.

Opened to commerce in 1914, the Panama Canal has more than justified its building. It has established a short and cheap water route between the Atlantic and Pacific seaboard of the United States, and has provided shorter routes between many world ports. By bringing our Atlantic ports nearer to the west coast of South America, trade and commerce between these points has been greatly increased. The canal has also resulted in the development of better relations with these Latin American peoples. The significance of the Panama Canal is vividly brought out on the map by the converging sea routes.

With our acquisition of the Panama Canal, our interest in the peace and stability of the Caribbean area became paramount. In 1907 the pressure of Italy and France, regarding debts owed by the Dominican Republic, became so threatening that the United States intervened. Again in 1914 the political situation in the republic required the services of the

United States; this time military occupation lasted until 1924. In the adjoining republic of Haiti the unsettled conditions prompted the United States to intervene in 1915. By a treaty with Haiti the United States assumed control of the republic's finances and police. In 1914 following a period of revolution in Mexico, the United States occupied Vera Cruz from April 21 to November 23. Conditions in Nicaragua in 1912 led the president of that republic to invite the United States forces to occupy Nicaragua in order to protect foreign interests and property; this occupation continued until 1933.

The Caribbean is in every sense now an American lake. Financial control and the other forces of "paramount interest" have made the United States the dominant power in Caribbean affairs. This policy has grown out of the needs for maintaining political and financial stability. The acquisition of the Virgin Islands from Denmark in 1917 for a sum of \$25,000,000 was one more step in consolidating our position in the Caribbean. The latest move in the defense of the Canal Zone has been the acquisition of naval bases on the British possessions of Bahama, Jamaica, Antigua, St. Lucia, Trinidad, and British Guiana.

MAP A24. GREATER UNITED STATES

The growth of the United States into a world power is illustrated on this map. Beginning as a small group of states strung along the Atlantic Coast, it had by 1783 reached the Mississippi. By 1853 the present continental area of the United States was complete.

The first major acquisition of outlying possessions by the United States was made in 1867 by the purchase of Alaska from Russia. The wealth of Alaska has barely been explored, but large deposits of coal and gold are known to exist. (Coal deposits and gold producing areas of Alaska appear on the map.) Before the conclusion of the Spanish-American War, the Hawaiian Islands, formerly a native kingdom and later a republic (1894), were annexed. From a strategic point of view the possession of these islands gives the United States a commanding position in Pacific affairs. Being nearly in the center of the Pacific Ocean, they are the focal point of most of the lines of communications. Forming a defense outpost for the American mainland, they have been heavily fortified. Pearl Harbor on the island of Oahu is one of our greatest naval bases.

The Spanish-American War in 1898 opened up a new era in the history of the United States. The purpose in going to war with Spain was to secure the independence of Cuba. There was no thought of an overseas empire. However as a result of the war, the United States suddenly found itself heir to the Spanish possessions of Puerto Rico in the Caribbean, and the Philippines and the island of Guam in the

Pacific. The acquisition in the Pacific made the United States an Asiatic power, forcing it to abandon its old policy of isolation from world affairs. Also both the Philippines and Puerto Rico had relatively large populations with cultures differing materially from that of this country. For the first time in history, Americans were faced with the problem of colonial administration. The future of Puerto Rico remains unsolved, but it may some day either become independent, or be admitted to the Union as a state. According to an act of Congress (1934) the Philippines were to have obtained their complete independence on July 4, 1945. However, its occupation by the Japanese in 1941, in the course of World War II, has interrupted political developments in the Philippines.

Since the acquisition of Howland and Baker Islands in 1857, the United States has from time to time claimed and taken possession of a number of other small islands in the Pacific, such as Midway, Wake, the eastern Samoas, Palmyra, Johnston, Jarvis, Canton, and Enderbury. The last two were occupied jointly with Great Britain in 1938. The majority of these islands are of value principally as potential naval or air bases. (See Map A23 for information on the Caribbean possessions and interests of the United States.)

While the United States must consider her island possessions from a strategic point of view under the present condition of international relations, yet the trade and commercial point of view is also of considerable importance. The thickness of the lines of sea traffic give some indication of the relative importance of trade between various points. The map brings out in a striking manner the significance of the Panama Canal as a world trade route. Important continental railroad lines are included on the map to show the connection between land and sea routes. The success of Amundsen in finally negotiating the "Northwest Passage" is also indicated.

The broken red line running down the center of the map is the International Date Line. This line indicates the point at which the days change. Ships sailing east set the date one day ahead; and those sailing west set it one day back, allowing for the revolution of the earth. The 180° meridian was chosen because, running thru the middle of the Pacific, it is distant from large land areas. The bulge in the line at the north is to accommodate the Aleutian Islands, bringing them under the same date as the United States. That in the south is to bring certain South Sea islands under the same date as Australia and New Zealand.

The inset at the bottom of the page indicates the comparative area of the United States and its outlying possessions. This is accomplished by superimposing the possessions upon the outline of continental United States, in their true scale in comparison to that of the United States. It is especially valuable in arriving at correct concepts.

Second Series:

Advanced U. S. History,

Problems of a Democracy

MAP A25. POPULATION DENSITY 1790-1870

The growth and distribution of the population of the United States during the first eighty years of its existence as a republic is shown on this series of nine maps. The dates chosen are those of each decennial census, the first of which was taken in 1790. The growth of urban population is indicated by including the largest towns for each decade.

The map of 1790 shows population massed near the tide-water, as it had been thruout colonial times. An almost continuous belt of well settled country stretched from New Hampshire to Maryland. (This area has continued to be the most densely populated region in the United States.) In 1800 the frontier had advanced westward. By 1810 the occupation of the Ohio Valley had become complete, and considerable settlement had occurred along the Mississippi at St. Louis and north from New Orleans. The South had lagged behind the North, but it is apparent that it was also experiencing the forward movement. At this period the most striking feature was the control of settlement by rivers, especially the Ohio, Red, Mississippi, and Arkansas.

While the frontier by 1820 had continued its westward march, settlement had tended to fill in certain areas. The influence of the Mohawk Valley on westward migration is illustrated by the belt of settlement extending from western New York. The settled area in southwestern Pennsylvania indicates the attractions of the Monongahela Valley. The large area in Kentucky is the famous Blue Grass region. In central Tennessee a large settlement had located in a region of rich soils, using the Cumberland River as a highway.

By 1830 there was a marked increase in settlement beyond the Mississippi. During this period the effect of better road and canal communication with the East was considerable. A comparison of the map of 1820 with that of 1830 shows the effect of the Erie Canal and the Cumberland Road on the distribution of people west of the mountains. While this westward movement was progressing, other parts of country were becoming more densely populated, especially New England and the area from New York to Baltimore.

By 1840 the country east of the Mississippi was well settled, except for some areas in the Appalachians, Adirondacks, Maine, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Florida. In this decade Illinois, Missouri, Arkansas, and the southern part of the lower peninsula of Michigan made considerable gain in population. Between 1840 and 1850 the greatest advance was made in eastern Texas, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Michigan. By 1850 railroads had begun to effect the movement

of population, lines having been built across the Appalachians from the larger cities of the East. Increase of population was not only by natural increase of native population; the country was now receiving a large number of immigrants who mainly settled in the North.

In 1860 the first extension of population beyond Missouri had taken place. A considerable increase in Texas was also evident. The area of settlement had also expanded in Wisconsin and into southern Minnesota. On the Pacific Coast the discovery of gold in 1849 had brought a large group of adventurers. The influx of people continued, until by 1860 there was a considerable population, especially in the San Francisco area. The continued extension of railroads during this period had further increased the movement of settlers into the Middle West. The opening of the first railroad to the Pacific in 1869 led to an influx of settlers along its route. As new roads were constructed the results were similar.

In the Far West may be noted three belts of settlement. The most eastern was located in New Mexico and Colorado. Attracted to this area by the discovery of minerals, settlers remained to develop it because of the richness of the soil and the abundance of water for irrigation. The next strip of occupied territory was in Utah, settled by the Mormons in 1847. The third was California. While the great influx of people here was due to the mining industry, the suitability of the region for agriculture led to permanent settlement and continued growth in population.

MAP A26. POPULATION DENSITY 1880-1910

In the four decades shown on this map there is represented the remarkable story of the rapid settlement of the area west of the Missouri and the Arkansas Rivers. In 1880 the western frontier lay to the east of the 100° meridian, altho in three separated sections of the Far West, namely, New Mexico-Colorado, Utah, and the Pacific Coast, there were areas of fairly dense population. By 1890 settlement had gone beyond the 100° meridian and the three settled areas of the Far West showed further expansion. In this period Oklahoma was created a territory, and settlement in this area is shown for the first time.

Altho the total population for 1900 showed a considerable increase over the previous decade, in many parts of the West there was an increase of unsettled area, due to such causes as unsuitable agricultural conditions and the working out of minerals. Population, however, continued to move westward; and by 1900 the unoccupied area separating the earlier settlements in the West was growing less noticeable. From 1900 on, the

West has grown rapidly, the rate of increase being greater west of the Mississippi than in the East. The development of irrigation, dry farming, and mining, together with improved transportation and the development of commercial and industrial centers, all have been factors in the rapid growth of the region. The opening up of Oklahoma and Indian Territory in 1890 led to a rapid increase of population, until by 1910 this area was one of the most settled parts of the West.

GROWTH OF POPULATION. In the century from 1800 to 1900 the population of the United States increased about fifteen times. Beginning with 5,308,483 in 1800, our population nearly doubled every twenty year period until 1880. Up to this time, with land plentiful and agriculture the chief occupation, large families had been general. However, during the latter part of the century, the rate of increase began to fall. The growth of inventions and the resulting industrial progress modified the social life of the country, leading to a decrease in the size of families. The decline in the rate of increase in our population has continued down to the present day, except for a temporary halt between the years 1901 to 1910, due to an exceptionally large influx of immigrants, the number totaling nearly 9,000,000. Between 1821 and 1925 no less than 36,000,000 immigrants landed on our shores. These immigrants played a major role in the development of the country.

In considering the distribution of population, it is worth noting that the ratio of urban to rural population has been constantly increasing down thru the years. In 1800 the population of the United States was almost entirely rural. Only 4% lived in cities of 8,000 or more; there were practically no large cities. From 1820 on, however, the rate of increase of urban population went forward steadily. By 1880 nearly 23% of the nation's population was urban, and by 1920 it had increased to nearly 44%. At this date there were over 924 cities of 8,000. Of these, New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia had passed the million mark, while Detroit, Los Angeles, Boston, Baltimore, Cleveland, St. Louis, San Francisco, and Pittsburgh were pressing forward to the million mark.

MAP A27. POPULATION DENSITY 1920

The distribution of population in 1920 brings out three zones of population in the country. First, there is the area east of the 100th meridian, where the mass of the people live; second, the area west of 100° as far as the Cascades and the Nevada ranges, with its light population; and third, the Pacific Coast valleys to the west of the mountains, with a constantly growing population. The growing urbanization of the country is brought out by the great increase in the number and size of the cities. From 1910 to 1920 the United States experienced unusual conditions. Altho the total population increased, the effects of war slackened immigration and produced a large outflow of former immigrants to their homelands. In the preceding census the slackened westward movement had become increasingly evident. In this decade geographical movements of population seemed to be dependent on industrial development.

As the period 1910-1920 showed great industrial expansion, especially during the war period, 1914 to 1918, it was natural to expect a decided increase in the population in the industrial states of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan and Wisconsin. This was the only area in the country which exceeded in 1910-

1920 the rate of increase of 1900-1910. The Rocky Mountain and Pacific areas continued to show higher percentages of increase than any other parts of the country, but compared with earlier decades the years 1910-1920 showed a decrease. In the states of the South the rate of increase was greatly reduced, due in large measure to the considerable northward migration of Negroes during the war period.

POPULATION DENSITY 1940

A black and white population density map for 1940 will be found on page lii.

MAP A28. UNITED STATES LAND SURVEY

The whole area of the United States, except the original states in the Union, plus Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, and part of Ohio, has been subject to rectangular survey. The excepted regions, shown in yellow on the map, were wholly subdivided under colonial and state charters, grants, and settlements. In no part of that area have United States surveyors been called upon to draw lines or to define lands intended for gift or sale. The remainder of the country has been subdivided by surveyors acting under the statutes of Congress. The broad red lines on the map indicate basal north and south, and east and west lines of survey, upon which as a basis eventually were drawn the boundaries of townships.

HISTORY OF THE SYSTEM. The rectangular method of land survey was practiced in some of the New England colonies where occasionally a square six miles on each side was set aside as a basis for a town. In the Pontiac War, about 1764, a Swiss officer named Bouquet proposed a rectangular plan of survey. This attracted the attention of Thomas Jefferson who introduced the plan into a land ordinance in 1784. This ordinance, however, never took effect.

The Virginia Military Bounty Lands and Congressional Land Grants, such as that made to the Ohio Company, had irregular boundaries. The northeastern part of Ohio was controlled by Connecticut which introduced its own system of townships five miles square. The rest of the state was settled in six-mile-square townships which conformed to a base line drawn east and west to a "first principal meridian." As the country settled up, more base lines and principal meridians were laid out to the Mississippi. The same system was applied to Alabama and Mississippi, and was followed out all the way across to the Pacific Coast. Various elements, some geographic, others connected with the settlement of the regions, influenced the amount of land surveyed from each meridian.

DRAWBACKS OF THE SYSTEM. This method proved difficult. These lines were laid out not on a flat plain but on the curving face of the earth. Hence, the principal meridians approached as they went northward. The lines were not marked by permanent monuments; usually wooden stakes were used; therefore it was often difficult to locate a tract which had been duly surveyed. Furthermore, the geographic straight lines did not fit in with the topography of a great part of the interior, where the streams flow from northeast to southwest or northwest to southeast; many sections were cut in two by water

courses. Nevertheless, the land system had the great advantage of making it easy to purchase a fixed quantity of land with boundaries which in most cases could be ascertained without much difficulty.

SYSTEM OF SUBDIVISION OF LAND. The inset of this map shows the method of dividing the land into tracks of a size suitable for farms. Every normal section was surveyed into thirty-six so-called sections, numbered back and forth as shown in the inset. Each of these square miles contained 640 acres, or a total of 23,040 acres in a whole township. When necessary a square mile was subdivided into halves, quarters, or eighths. The quarter section areas of 160 acres came to be thought of as a normal farm. Many soldiers' and homestead grants were made in units of 160 acres.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION SERIES

Maps 29 to 35 inclusive portray the series of presidential elections from 1796 to 1924. (Maps of later elections are included among the black and white supplementary maps at the end of the atlas.) They disclose the division of electoral votes by parties. Graphs are included on each map to show the number of electoral and popular votes. Many political and constitutional questions turn upon the groupings of political forces which are thereby made clear.

Thruout the series a blue color represents the conservative party or group. Therefore, in the early maps it denotes the Federalists, down to the exit of the party from the political scene after the election of 1820; but it reappears in 1824 for John Quincy Adams. The Whig party is represented by blue from 1836 until its disappearance after 1852. From then on it indicates the Republican party.

A pink color has been used to represent the more liberal or individualistic parties or groups. In 1796 it stands for a party built up about Thomas Jefferson, for a number of years called the Republican-Democratic party. From 1824 to 1828 the force that held these voters together was Andrew Jackson and his political principles. In 1832 they took on the name Democratic, and from that time on there has always been a Democratic party in national elections.

Third party candidates are represented by other colors. In 1824, 1832, and 1860 there were electoral votes for a fourth candidate. From 1864 to 1888 no electoral votes were cast except for Republican and Democratic candidates. In 1892 a small Populist vote was shown, and in 1912 the Progressive party appeared. In 1924 the state of Wisconsin went Progressive. The colors of the graphs denoting the division of the popular and electoral votes correspond with the colors of the little graphs of popular votes in each state. Territories not participating in the elections are colored yellow.

SYSTEM OF PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS. The maps are graphic representations of electoral laws and practices. Under the Constitution of the United States the president and vice-president are elected every four years by what was intended to be the personal judgment of electors chosen in each state. In the first contested election for president (1796), this system broke down, for most of the electors were chosen with the expectation that they would vote for a particular candidate.

This inaugurated the custom that, tho the voters cast their ballots for a ticket of electors in each state, they really vote for the candidate whom those electors are previously pledged to support.

Under the Constitution the electors may be chosen by the legislatures, in which case the electors will usually all vote for the same man. A second legal method is for states to subdivide themselves into electoral districts. A third method of choosing electors is by popular vote of the qualified voters in the state for a ticket comprising the whole number of electors. This has now become universal.

Under the presidential electoral system it is possible for a president to be chosen who has fewer popular votes than a defeated candidate. Since the popular votes began to be counted in 1824, there have been several presidents having fewer popular votes than a defeated adversary.

MAP A29. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1796-1820

In the newly formed United States of America, differences in opinions and interests, which were to affect its development, were not long in appearing. Conflicts immediately arose over the questions of the tariff, state rights, etc. The natural reaction in a democratic country such as the newly formed United States, where freedom of speech, press, and assembly were adequately guaranteed, was the grouping of voters of like opinions into political parties in order to obtain a governmental policy that coincided with their general views and interests.

Before Washington's first term was over, the growing cleavage among the voters laid the foundations for the first political parties of the new nation. By the end of his second term, the principle of party government was no longer in the embryonic stage; two full-fledged political parties were in existence. Ever since, except for a relatively brief period of no great differences of opinions in the first part of the 19th century, party government has marked the course of American history.

ELECTIONS OF 1789 AND 1792. No maps for these two elections have been prepared because in both of them every electoral vote was cast for George Washington. John Adams received less than a majority of the electoral votes for the vice-presidency in 1789, but more than anybody else; under the Constitution as it then stood, he was elected. In 1792 Adams had a clear majority of all the votes for vice-president.

ELECTION OF 1796. In this election John Adams, the candidate of the Federalist party, which favored a strong central government, received all of the electoral votes of New England, the majority of the votes of the Middle states, and some scattered votes in the South. The commercial and banking interests formed the backbone of Federalist support. Most of the southern and western votes went to Jefferson, the candidate of the Republican-Democratic party, which favored a loosely constructed government. The agricultural regions were the stronghold of the Republican-Democrats. This sectional preference appears in all of the elections thru 1816.

ELECTIONS OF 1800 AND 1801. In 1800 the voting states were the same as in the previous election. Under the Constitution a majority of all the electoral votes was necessary.

In case of no majority, the House of Representatives was to make the choice, each state representation casting one vote. Since all the Republican and Democratic electors voted for both Jefferson and Burr, there was a technical tie, and nobody was elected. It therefore fell to the House of Representatives in 1801 to choose between them. In that House the states having a Federalist majority were more numerous than the states having Republican-Democratic majorities. Hence, the Federalists were obliged to choose between two men, both of whom were their political opponents. The result is shown in the map of 1801. South Carolina was tied and cast no vote. The votes of the other states are shown by the initials "J" for Jefferson or "B" for Burr. Thru the influence of Alexander Hamilton and others, enough Federal states voted for Jefferson to give him the presidency. This incident led to the adoption of the Twelfth Amendment in 1804, under which the electors voted for president and vice-president separately.

ELECTION OF 1804. This election was a walk-over for Jefferson. The vote was almost unanimous. He received one hundred and sixty-two of one hundred and seventy-six electoral votes. A new state appears on this map, namely Ohio, which entered the Union in 1803. The three western states, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio, found themselves in political agreement with their parent states immediately to the east.

ELECTION OF 1808. The "Virginia Dynasty," as it was sometimes called, passed the presidency on from Jefferson to Madison, and in 1816 from Madison to Monroe. The almost complete return of New England to the Federalist camp was due to the damage inflicted on American commerce by the Embargo Act which had been sponsored by Jefferson.

ELECTION OF 1812. The schism between the commercial and agricultural regions was emphasized in the election of 1812, which was very closely connected with the controversy over war with England. The former Federalist states and New York vainly united to support DeWitt Clinton.

ELECTION OF 1816. The opposition of the Federalists to the war, climaxed by the Hartford Convention, resulted in the downfall of the party. Vermont had deserted the party back in 1804; when New Hampshire and Rhode Island followed her in 1816, only Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware were left in the slender Federalist column. Indiana was admitted to the Union during this period and sided with her neighbor states, casting three electoral votes for Monroe. No popular vote was cast because the state had not been formerly admitted in time. The same is true of Missouri in 1820 and Michigan in 1836.

ELECTION OF 1820. During the four years from 1816 to 1820 tremendous changes occurred in the map of the Union. Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, Missouri, and Maine were added to the voting states, the latter two by the famous Missouri Compromise of 1820. This was the only election in the history of the United States (except the two choices of Washington in 1789 and 1792) in which the vote was practically unanimous. To look at the map one would suppose that there was universal harmony and only one set of political doctrines. What actually happened was that the Federalist

party was dead, and for the time no serious controversies divided the nation. It was an era of good feeling.

MAP A30. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1824-1844

With the disappearance of the Federalist organization, the Democratic-Republicans took over many of the Federalist ideas. Regarded as liberal under the leadership of Jefferson, the party now came to be looked upon as the center of conservatism. As a result, the democratic or liberal forces, concentrated largely in the new states of the West and in the eastern industrial cities, began to build up a new party about the colorful Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, the "friend of the common people." Jackson typified a democratic way of life and his election marked an epoch in American history. In time the Jackson supporters took on the name of Democrats and since then there has continued to be a Democratic party in American politics.

ELECTION OF 1824. This is the famous go-as-you-please election in which there were no parties. For the first and last time in the history of the United States the struggle was a personal one between four candidates, John Quincy Adams, Jackson, Crawford, and Clay. This was the first presidential election in which the number of popular votes was tabulated and printed, tho by a private publication. The total popular votes were about 350,000 of which Jackson got about 150,000 and Adams only about 100,000. The Jackson men insisted that Jackson was the moral victor, altho he polled considerably less than a majority of either popular or electoral votes. In any case, under the Constitution there was no election.

ELECTION OF 1825. In this crisis the choice had to be made by the House of Representatives voting by states as in 1801. The House had been elected in 1822 with no suggestion of such a task and was split from top to bottom. The delegates of the New England states, Illinois, and Missouri were for Adams. In five more—Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New York, and Ohio—he had the majority of the delegations for him. This gave him thirteen states and the election. Jackson got Indiana and four states in the South; Crawford received majorities in the four remaining states. It was definitely a non-sectional choice.

ELECTION OF 1828. Next came the regular election of 1828 in which Jackson was triumphantly elected over Adams by an electoral vote of 178 to 83. One of the interesting points of the contest was that Calhoun, who had been easily elected vice-president in 1824, was again put on the ticket to fill that office. It was expected that he would be Jackson's successor in the White House.

ELECTION OF 1832. In the election of 1828, the supporters of Adams, consisting largely but not entirely of former Federalists, began to take the name of National Republicans. In 1832 Henry Clay, one of the candidates in 1824, was nominated by the National Republican party. Jackson's friends and supporters began to call themselves Democrats. Jackson was re-elected by an overwhelming majority of the electoral votes.

ELECTION OF 1836. Four years later the Jackson men were strongly assembled in support of Van Buren, Jackson's personal nominee. He was backed by a distinct Democratic party. The opposing votes were divided between several Whig candidates. Harrison received seventy-three electoral votes, Webster fourteen, and White of Tennessee twenty-six. Out of a million and a half votes cast, the opposition totalled 737,000 against 762,000 for Van Buren. A factor which had considerable influence in this election and in the elections of the next ten years was the formation of a block of interior Whig states extending from the Great Lakes down thru Kentucky and Tennessee and taking in several other southern states.

ELECTION OF 1837. In the confusion of candidates, no vice-president was elected, therefore, under the Constitution, it became the duty of the Senate of 1837 to fill that vacancy. Johnson, the Democrat, was chosen over Granger, the Whig, by a decisive vote. The political division of the states was not quite the same as in the regular election, the Democrats carrying a larger number of them.

ELECTION OF 1840. By 1840 both Whigs and Democrats had a regular system of nominating conventions made up of delegates from the states; but the factor is not brought out on the map. However, the map does show the tidal wave for the candidate of the Whig party, General Harrison of Ohio, the first northwestern candidate. He carried the whole of New England, except New Hampshire; a tier of northern states as far west as Illinois; Kentucky and Tennessee, both old strongholds of the Whig party; and several of the far southern states. The development of the Democratic states still farther west was significant. Again, tho the Harrison electoral vote was about four times as numerous as that for Van Buren, the popular vote of the Democratic party as against the Whigs was in the proportion of eleven to thirteen. This is because of large Democratic vote in Whig states.

ELECTION OF 1844. By this time the Whigs were advocating a protective tariff and a national bank, both strongly opposed by the Democrats. To these lines of division was added the question of the annexation of Texas, an issue which had a decided bearing on the outcome of the election. Polk, the Democratic candidate, favored annexation, while Clay, the Whig candidate, tried to dodge issue. Tho the popular vote was very close, Polk carried New York and Pennsylvania, the belt of most southerly states, and all the great northwestern states except Ohio. As soon as Polk became president, Texas was annexed.

MAP A31. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1848-1860

We have now reached the point where a new factor was added to the presidential elections by the rapid formation of states in the western, northwestern, and southwestern sections of the country. These new states were being formed from the four great additions which had been made to the original area of the United States. The first addition was the Louisiana Territory in 1803, pushing the national boundary westward to the Rocky Mountains. The second was Texas in 1845, claiming to include all of the territory as far west and south as the

Rio Grande. The third was the Oregon Country in 1846, giving us title to land as far as the Pacific. The fourth was the vast area between Texas and the Pacific Ocean, including California, which was conquered in 1846 and 1847 and added to the Union by treaty with Mexico in 1848. In the four elections between 1848 and 1860 the beginning of the western and Pacific state groups, which came finally to turn several presidential elections, is evident.

ELECTION OF 1848. The annexation of Texas brought in a population large enough to cast four electoral votes for president. The states of Wisconsin, Florida, and Iowa were also added to the Union. The issue in 1848 was a military Whig against a straight Democrat. The map shows the largest extension of Whig influence. Tho upper New England was obstinately Democratic, the main Democratic strength was in four southern states and in the Middle West, the Democratic candidate being Cass, a Michigan man. The Whigs easily elected General Taylor of Louisiana. The issues were partly questions of banks, public lands, and the tariff, but especially the frame of mind of the population towards the extension of power and territory to the Pacific.

General Taylor died early in his term of office (1850) and was succeeded by Vice-President Fillmore of New York. One of the most dramatic episodes of the period was the admission of California in 1850 as a free state, made so by action of its own state convention.

ELECTION OF 1852. The real question that aroused the people of the country in 1852 was slavery. It was brought to the front by the annexation of Texas as a slave state in 1845, by the pushing of territory to the Pacific Coast in 1848 in latitudes where slavery was possible, and by the Compromise of 1850 which was an attempt to settle the question regarding the introduction of slavery into the new territories. The Democrats hastened to draw up a platform accepting the compromise as "final solution" and nominated Pierce, a man who could be trusted not to aggravate the slavery problem. The Whig party was virtually beaten out of existence.

One of the features in this election was the anti-slavery vote. This is to be traced first in the election of 1844 where 62,000 "Liberty" votes were cast by uncompromising anti-slavery men. In 1848 the Free Soilers, opposed to any extension of slavery to new territory, joined with Van Buren who bolted from the Democratic party. They cast nearly 300,000 votes, withdrawing enough Democratic votes from New York so that Taylor carried it and got the election. In 1852 they reorganized as the Free Democrats, making it clear that all anti-slavery men were by no means Whigs.

ELECTION OF 1856. In 1854 the Kansas-Nebraska Act led to a definite shifting of party lines. The anti-slavery Democrats, a number of Whigs, and the old Free Soilers joined to form the Republican party, which was formed on a basis of opposition to any further extension of slavery. It was certainly not merely the Whig party under another name. Many former Whigs were found in the "Know Nothing" or native American party; also the old Whig organization was preserved under the name Whig-National American. The Republicans cast

1,335,000 votes for their candidate, Fremont; but Buchanan of Pennsylvania received 1,838,000 Democratic votes and was elected. This seems, at first glance, to have been a great triumph for the pro-slavery forces; however the "Know Nothings" and the remnant of the Whig party cast nearly 900,000 votes, actually bringing up the total anti-Democratic vote to around 2,200,000.

ELECTION OF 1860. By 1860 the opposition to the Republicans was hopelessly divided. The Constitutional Unionists (southern Whigs), mainly in the border states of Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, chose Bell of Tennessee as their candidate. The Democrats split in their convention; the moderates put up Douglas of Illinois, while the staunch defenders of slavery nominated Breckinridge. As a result of this division the Republicans entered the conflict with greater hopes than in the previous election. Their expectations were justified. Lincoln was elected to the presidency, altho the combined opposition received over 900,000 more votes. The Democratic party had now lost its unity. It was split into two distinct factions, a northern and a southern. The Republican party was, except for a few Republican voters in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, a northern organization. Two new states, Minnesota and Oregon, proved to be Republican.

MAP A32. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1864-1876

The four maps on this page cover the elections of the Civil War and the Reconstruction periods, and show the slow rebuilding of a Democratic party. The Republican party remained strong north of the Ohio River, and took over the new western states as they were admitted; but in 1876 Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Indiana went Democratic. The four maps show the Republican party gradually losing part of its force in the North, just as the southern states returned to their Democratic preference.

ELECTION OF 1864. In 1864 Lincoln was re-elected. Every northern state, except New Jersey, and every Pacific Coast state, including the new state of Nevada, went Republican, as did the new state of Kansas. Every southern state that had seceded was in armed conflict against the national government and, therefore, took no part in a national election.

ELECTION OF 1868. One additional state came in before 1868, namely, Nebraska. The non-voting southern states were reduced to Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas. The new state of West Virginia, admitted in 1863 as a punishment to Virginia for its participation in the Civil War, went Republican. All the rest of the South, except Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, and Delaware, also went Republican, due to the voting of Negroes. Under these circumstances the success of General Grant, the Republican candidate, was certain, altho the total Democratic vote, including the Democratic and Republican states, was 2,700,000, against 3,000,000 for Grant.

ELECTION OF 1872. The abnormal condition of reconstructed states operating under Republican influences continued thru this election. The Democrats carried only Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Georgia, and Texas,

altho they put up the seasoned abolitionist Greeley as their candidate. Every state was now restored to a voting status, but the votes of two, Arkansas and Louisiana, were thrown out on grounds of fraud. Grant's re-election seemed to promise the Republicans a long course of unchecked power.

ELECTION OF 1876. In the period from 1872 to 1876, the new state of Colorado was admitted, thus making six states in the Far West, all of them Republican. Three of the reconstructed southern states, South Carolina, Louisiana, and Florida, went Republican. Every other former slave-holding state, including even West Virginia, became Democratic, signaling the building up of a southern party against a northern party. The electoral machine of Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina was in the hands of Republicans who decided that there was a small majority for the Republican ticket in their states. This brought on a crisis in Congress which was finally settled by an extra-constitutional commission. By a party line vote of eight to seven the commission decided that practically all the contested state votes were Republican. The vote was declared as being 185 for Hayes against 184 for Tilden.

MAP A33. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1880-1892

The four maps in this series form the celebrated see-saw elections. There was a Republican victory in 1880, Democratic in 1884; again Republican in 1888, and Democratic in 1892. During the first three of these elections New England, the states north of Maryland and the Ohio River, and the new northwestern states were almost solidly Republican, except for Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. In all the elections, if New York went Democratic the country went Democratic. In all the elections, without any exception, every southern state, including Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri, went Democratic. This is the celebrated Solid South which has since remained almost solidly Democratic.

In 1889 and 1890 the six states of Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Washington came in almost simultaneously. In those twelve years the map of the United States was considerably altered by the almost complete disappearance of the block of territories shown by the yellow color in 1884 and 1888. This is a fundamental change; for after Utah became a state in 1896 every part of the continental area of the Union had acquired statehood except Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona.

ELECTION OF 1880. The Republican candidate in 1880 was James A. Garfield of Ohio. He was opposed by General Hancock of New York, the last of a series of military candidates beginning with Grant in 1868. As frequently has happened, tho Garfield secured a plurality of sixty electoral votes, his popular plurality was not great, being only about 7,000 out of the 9,000,000 votes cast. That California and Nevada should be Democratic was a new idea in American politics, but they were never thereafter steadily Republican.

ELECTION OF 1884. The political line-up of the states in 1884 was much the same as it had been in 1880. The important difference was that New York, which had in the previous

election given a 21,000 plurality to the Republicans, now gave a plurality of 1,000 to the Democrats. Grover Cleveland, Governor of New York, was the first Democrat to be chosen president since James Buchanan in 1856. He narrowly defeated his opponent, James G. Blaine of Maine, long in public office and a consummate politician. Cleveland owed his election to the formation of a body of voters, commonly called Mugwumps, who in New York and Connecticut turned the scale for Cleveland.

ELECTION OF 1888. In the three elections from 1880 to 1888 a minority vote of 300,000 to 400,000 was cast for the nominee of Greenback, Prohibition, and Labor parties. Leaving those minor votes out of account, Harrison of Indiana, tho he defeated Cleveland, received 100,000 fewer popular votes. Outside of the former border states and North Carolina, the Republican minority in the South was too small to make possible a permanent or powerful organization.

ELECTION OF 1892. In 1892 came a reaction which showed itself in the choice of Cleveland for a second term. This is the only instance in the history of the United States where a man has been elected to two terms which were not consecutive. The vote was somewhat affected by a long continued struggle in Congress over the Lodge Force Bill. This was a proposition that the federal government conduct the elections for all federal officials, including the president. Its supporters hoped to develop a controlling Republican vote in some of the southern states. Along with the Lodge Bill controversy was the tremendous agitation over free silver, that is, the right to deposit silver bullion in the United States mint and to receive for it gold or silver coin at the ratio of sixteen to one between the metals. The silver miners were greatly interested in this question, and the admission of the six far western states was tied up with the abandonment of the Force Bill. The most serious disturbance in that year was the rise of a minority party calling itself the Populist, standing not only for free silver but for other measures urged in behalf of the laboring and farming classes.

MAP A34. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1896-1908

In the next four elections we see a series of struggles between the North and South. The North was solidly Republican so far as New England, the Middle states, and the Middle West were concerned. On the other hand the South remained solidly Democratic, with the exception of the border states. The states of the Far West were nearly all Democratic in 1896, were divided in 1900, in 1904 became solidly Republican, and in 1908 were again divided.

ELECTION OF 1896. William J. Bryan of Nebraska was nominated by the Democratic convention after an impassioned speech on the free silver question, including the famous declaration, "Thou shalt not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold." William McKinley, the Republican, was easily elected over Bryan. This election drew a large Republican vote in Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee; but the Solid South's electoral vote was unshaken. Measured by area of states, Bryan was the favorite candidate. His states in the Northwest, how-

ever, had small populations and hence few votes; while the smaller areas of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and the states along the Great Lakes rolled up great Republican majorities. McKinley received about 600,000 more popular votes than Bryan.

ELECTION OF 1900. The politics of the country were much affected by the Spanish War of 1898, and the resulting occupation of the Philippines. In 1900 President McKinley was a candidate for a second term and Bryan was again nominated by the Democrats. The division of the states between the two major parties was altered from 1896, inasmuch as Wyoming, Washington, Utah, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas went over from the Democratic to the Republican columns. Kentucky shifted from Republican to Democratic. The Republican majority was 850,000 over the Democrats, presaging a long hold of Republican power. The assassination of McKinley in the fall of 1901 brought Theodore Roosevelt into the presidential chair; therefore this administration was actually his.

ELECTION OF 1904. Roosevelt's administration was very popular and, without opposition, he was nominated for a second term. Alton B. Parker of New York was the Democratic candidate and was successful in rallying the party convention on the side of gold standard. For the first time in many years the Republicans got more than two-thirds of the electoral votes; Roosevelt's plurality over the Democrats was over 2,500,000, and his majority over all was over 1,500,000. For the first time the Republican party lined up every northern state, every far western state, and every Pacific state. Outside the "Solid South", including the border states, the Democratic vote was insignificant. No president since Grant, in 1872, secured such a triumphant majority as Roosevelt.

ELECTION OF 1908. As was proved later, Roosevelt could probably have been renominated for a third term, or for a second elective term. He considered himself pledged against that course and practically selected the Secretary of War, William H. Taft of Ohio, as his successor. Bryan was for the third time the Democratic candidate, and for the third time was defeated. The electoral vote was substantially the same as in 1904, except that the Republicans lost Nevada, Colorado, and Nebraska by a close vote. One new state, Oklahoma, went Democratic. The "Solid South" was still solid except for West Virginia and two Republican votes in Maryland. Taft's popular plurality was nearly 1,300,000; but an aggregate of minor parties cast 800,000 votes. This includes Prohibition and Socialist-Labor candidates.

MAP A35. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1912-1924

This map brings out several hotly contested elections, including a new third party, and after 1912 involves the great issues of peace and war. At first glance the election of 1912 infers a tremendous increase in Democratic strength. What actually happened was that the Republican party was broken into two nearly equal factions, leaving many states open to Democratic pluralities. By comparing with the next three elections, it becomes evident that the Republican party, when united, was still stronger than the Democratic.

The recovery of power by the Republicans was delayed until 1920 because the effects of the World War caused the majority to stand by the Democratic administration then in power. After peace was made in 1919, the country returned to political conditions very like those from 1896 to 1912. By the admission of Arizona and New Mexico to the Union in 1912, the whole continental area (except for the District of Columbia and for government posts) was at last carved into forty-eight politically equal states.

ELECTION OF 1912. In the spring of 1912 Roosevelt announced that he was a candidate for nomination by the Republican convention. At the Republican convention in Chicago, Taft was renominated. Roosevelt then headed a bolt; a new national party was organized in nearly every state of the North and in some of the South. The Progressives cast about 600,000 more votes than the straight Republicans; the total of the two votes was about 7,600,000, against 6,300,000 cast by the Democrats. Not since 1812 had a political party received such a great majority of the electoral votes as in 1912. Thirty-eight states, totaling 435 electoral votes, were for Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, the Democratic candidate. Only two small states, Vermont and Utah, aggregating eight electoral votes, went Republican. The six states of Pennsylvania, Michigan, Minnesota, South Dakota, Washington, and California, with eighty-eight electoral votes, went "Progressive." Wilson received the largest number of electoral votes ever credited to any candidate for the presidency up to that time.

ELECTION OF 1916. As has already been pointed, the outbreak of war in Europe (August, 1914), aroused the people of the United States, but this excitement was not reflected in the political parties. Some Republicans and some Democrats favored military aid to England, France, Russia, and Italy, who were allies against the Germans and Austrians. Much more numerous were the Republicans and Democrats who desired to preserve our neutrality. Woodrow Wilson, who was renominated without difficulty, was supported by the party cry of, "He kept us out of war." Nevertheless the Republicans were nearly successful, securing for their candidate, Hughes of New York, 254 votes against 277 for Wilson. The Democrats, however, had a popular plurality of about 600,000.

Among the political issues taken up by President Wilson in the elections of 1912 and 1916 were the questions of corporations, railroads, and conservation which had been so vigorously handled by Roosevelt. The Republican Payne-Aldrich Tariff of 1909 and its successor, the Democratic Underwood tariff of 1913, were also to some extent an issue in the election of 1916.

ELECTION OF 1920. Apparently contrary to Wilson's expectation, the German government early in 1917 announced the resumption of indiscriminate submarine warfare. Before Wilson's second inaugural on March 4, 1917, war was imminent and on April 6 it was declared by Congress. On November 11, 1918, the combined Allied forces compelled Germany to sue for an armistice that culminated in the peace negotiations of 1919. President Wilson took a leading part in the peace conference. He put forward the plan for the League of Nations and signed a treaty by which the United States was to make

a defensive and offensive alliance with France and Great Britain. Lacking the necessary votes, President Wilson was not successful in having Congress approve the treaty of peace nor the plan for a League of Nations. The treaty of alliance was never brought to a vote.

When the time came to nominate candidates, President Wilson because of illness was unable to take any part and James M. Cox of Ohio, an inconspicuous candidate, was put up. The Republicans nominated Warren G. Harding, also of Ohio and equally inconspicuous. The Democrats favored membership in the League of Nations, while some of the Republicans insisted that the League be joined, some were neutral, and some opposed. The election was, therefore, not a referendum on the League. The main issue was whether the country wished to "get back to normalcy" by returning to Republican control. Harding received 16,000,000 votes against 9,000,000 for Cox. He carried all the North, the Southwest, Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, and Tennessee. The great increase in the number of popular votes was due to the Nineteenth Amendment which prevented any state from making voting distinctions between men and women in national elections. Harding did not make a capable president, his administration being marked by corruption. He died suddenly on August 2, 1923, and Vice-President Coolidge was elevated to the presidency.

ELECTION OF 1924. President Coolidge was renominated by the Republicans in 1924 and re-elected. An attempt was made by Senator La Follette of Wisconsin to engineer a split in the Republican party like that under Roosevelt in 1912; and under the old name of Progressive the ticket actually polled nearly 5,000,000 votes, including most of the votes which usually had gone to the minor parties. La Follette carried no state, except Wisconsin with 13 votes. The Democratic candidate, Davis of West Virginia, polled 8,400,000 votes, about 700,000 less than the Democratic total of 1920. The Republican vote was also diminished by about 400,000. Kentucky changed by narrow majorities from the Democratic to the Republican column, and Tennessee from the Republican to the Democratic. The Democrats also gained Oklahoma; otherwise the former line up of the states was not affected.

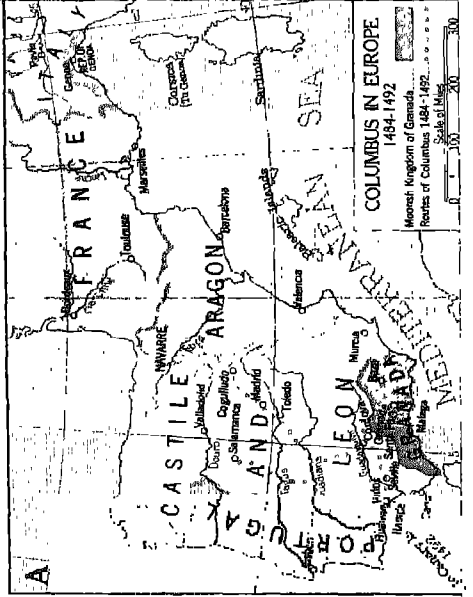
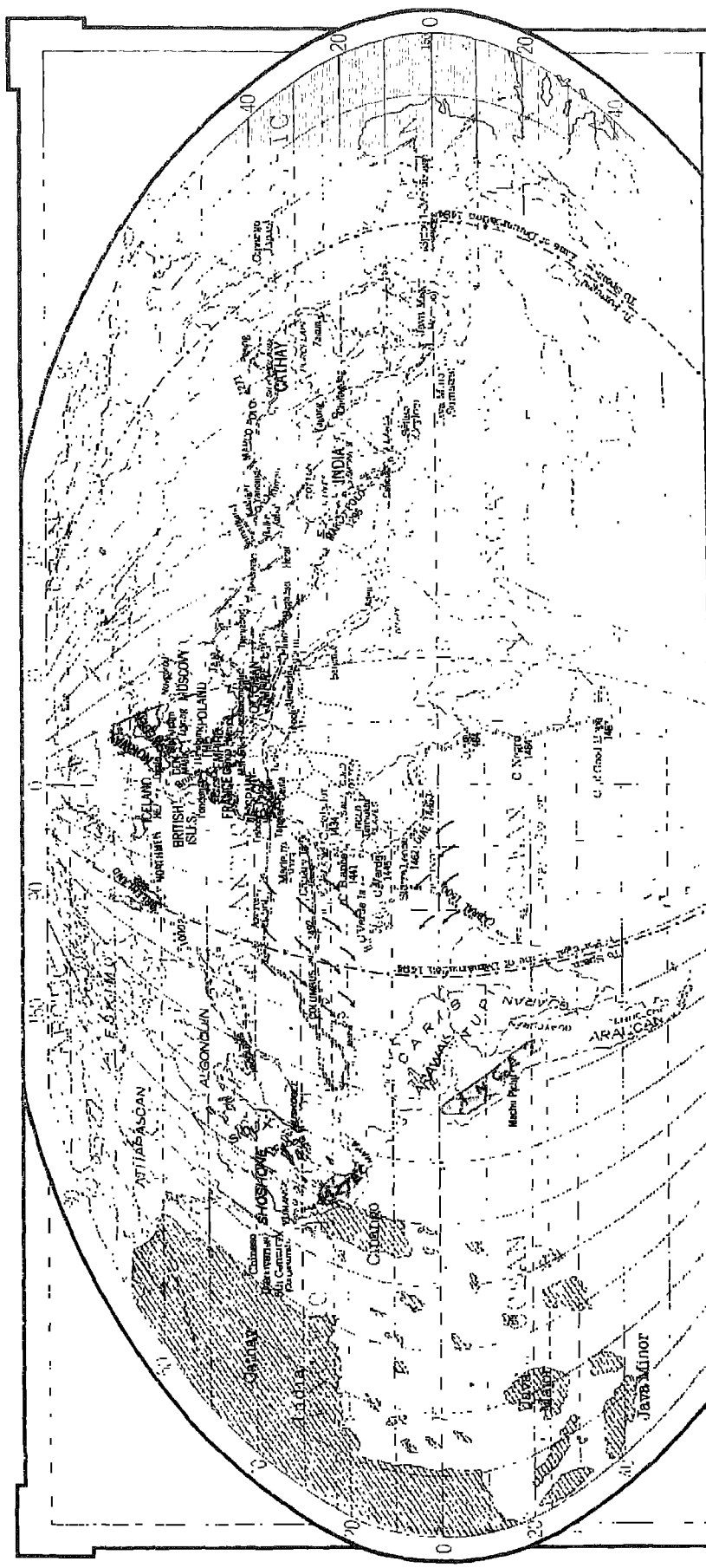
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1928-1944

These elections are discussed and results illustrated in a series of black and white maps on pages I and II.

MAP A36. SLAVERY 1776-1849

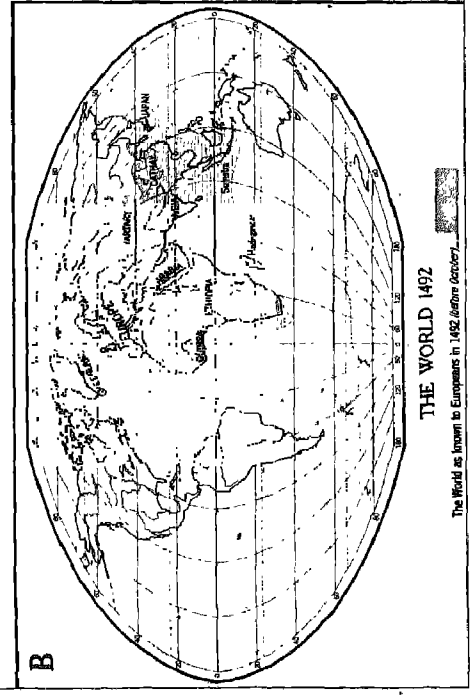
From their foundation the English colonies in America were confronted with the problem of personal ownership of one group of human beings by another group, and at the same time maintaining a democratic spirit in the free group. Both in the northern and southern colonies Indians were from the beginning occasionally enslaved. In 1619 Negro slaves were first introduced into Virginia and later into all the southern and middle colonies. They became very numerous in the former and quite numerous in the latter.

EMANCIPATION ACTS. During, or immediately after the Revolution, all the New England states took steps to prohibit the holding of slaves. They were followed by Pennsylvania,

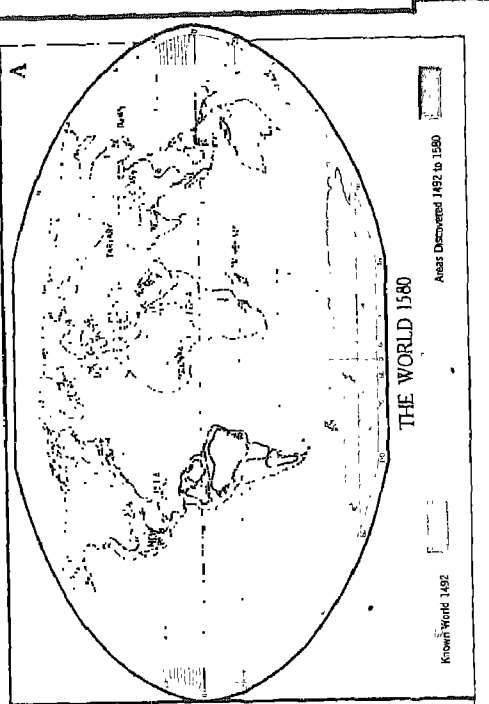
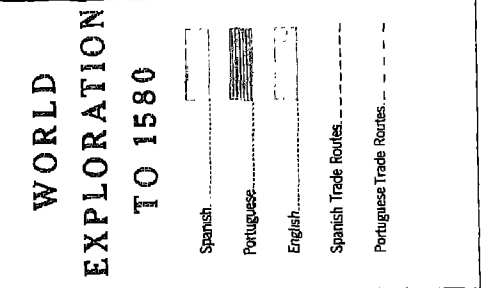
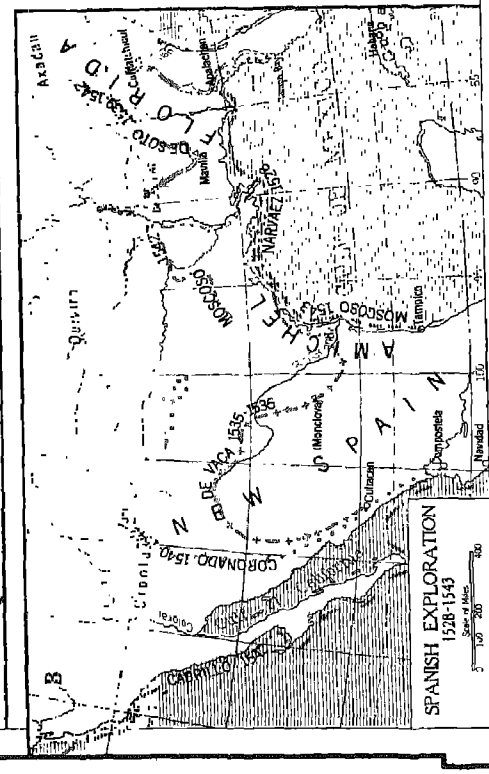
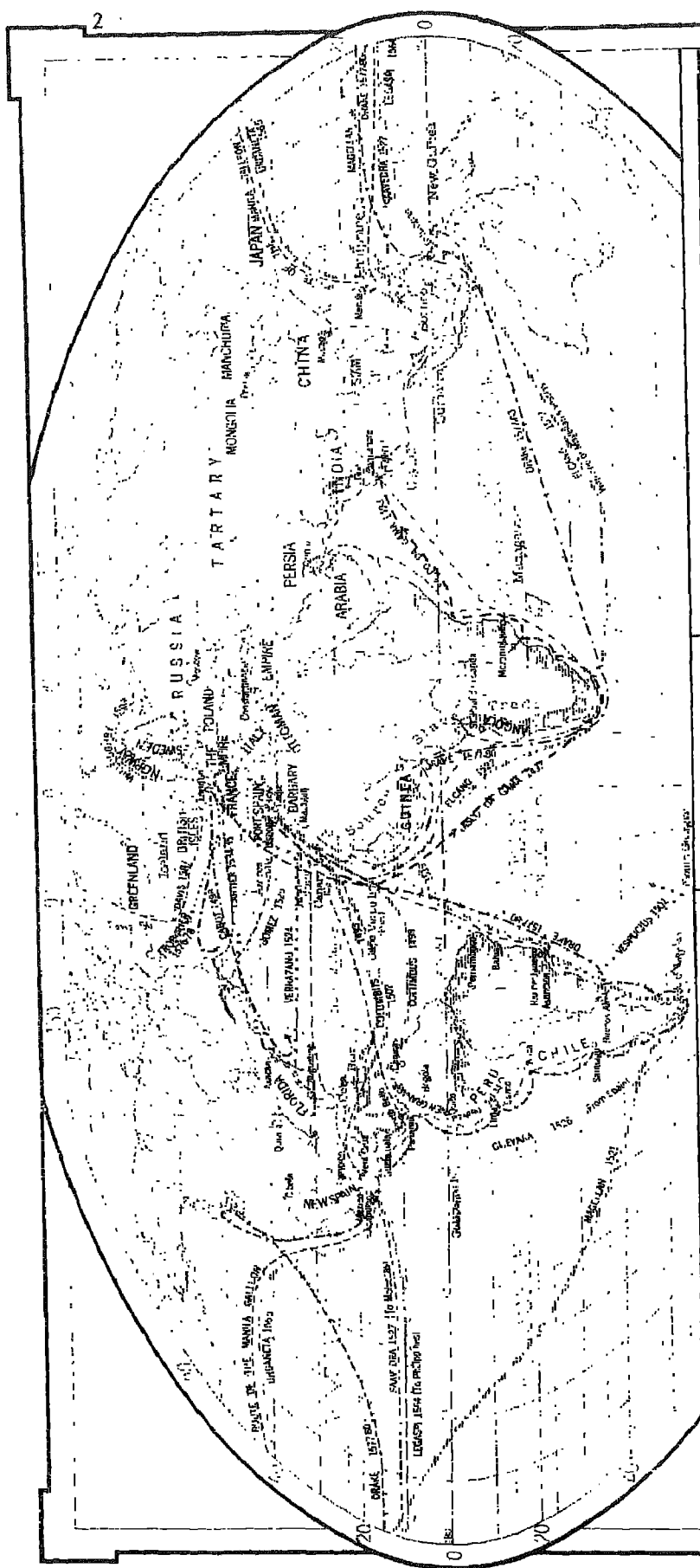


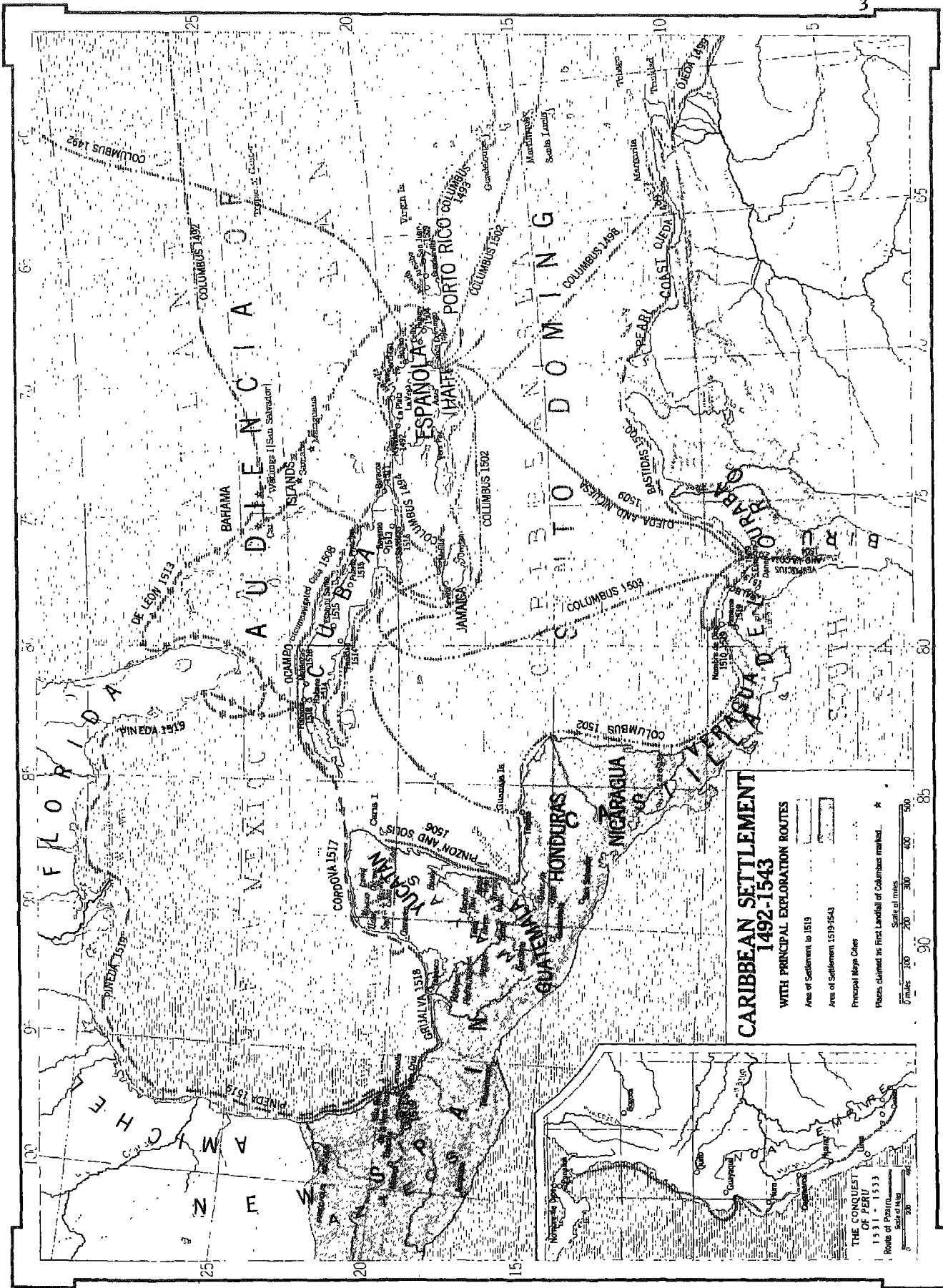
WORLD OF COLUMBUS
1492

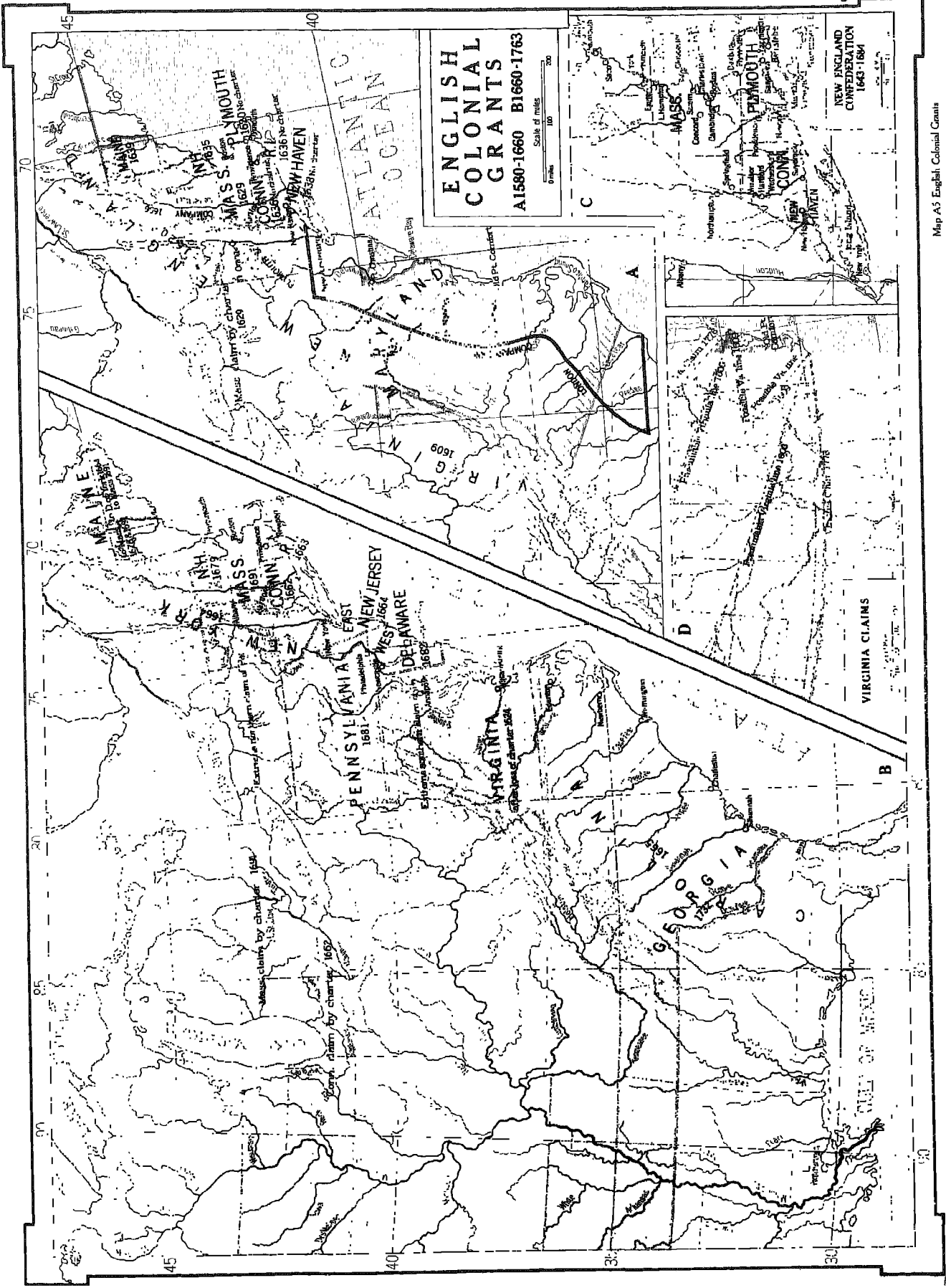
Sea Routes of Venice
Sea Routes of Genoa
General Sea Routes
Land Routes
Caravan Routes
Prevailing Winds
The World according to Behaim's Globe in black outline.



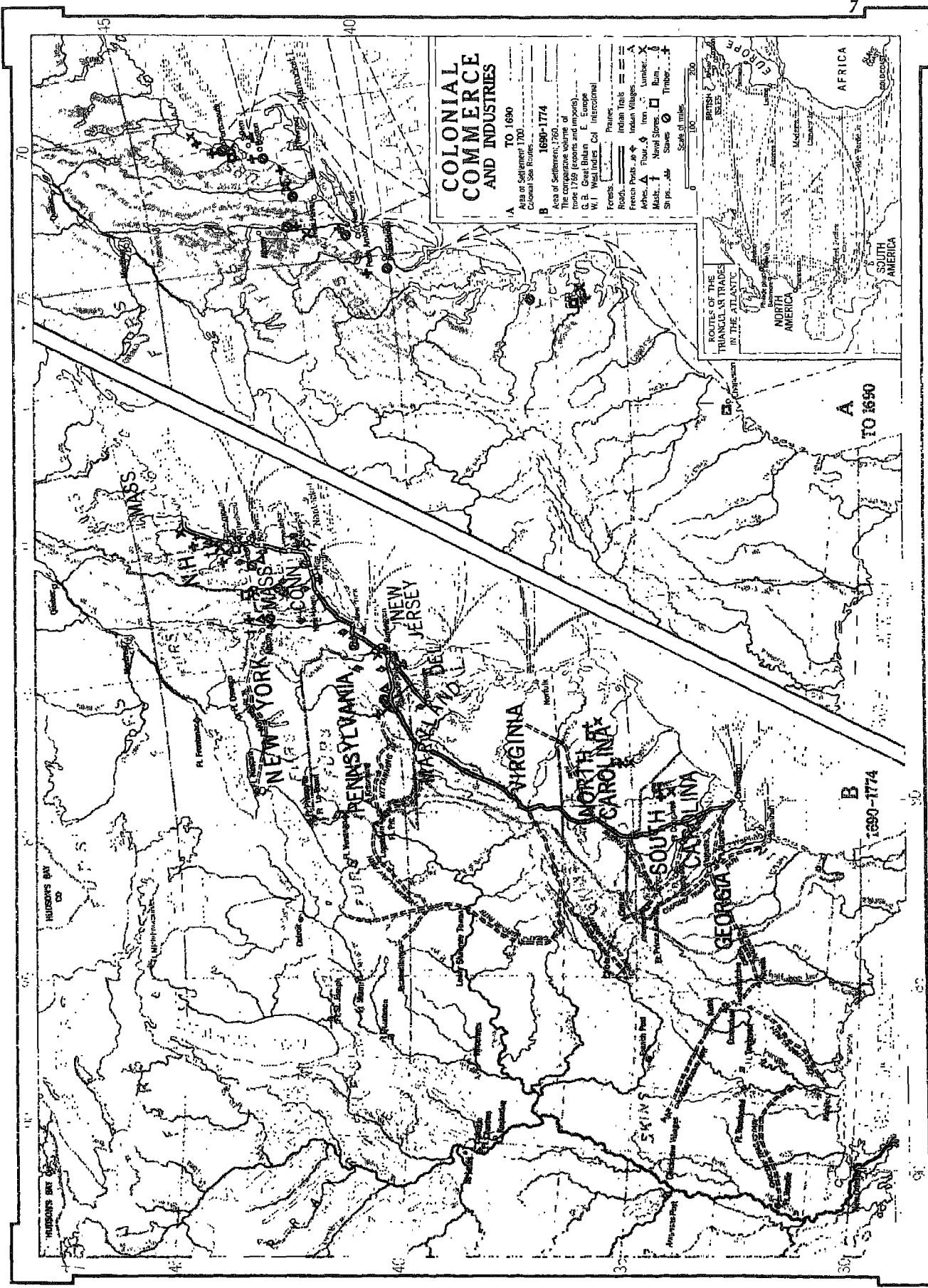
THE WORLD 1492
The World as known to Europeans in 1492 before discovery.







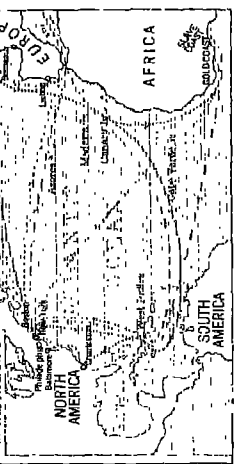
Map A5 English Colonial Grants



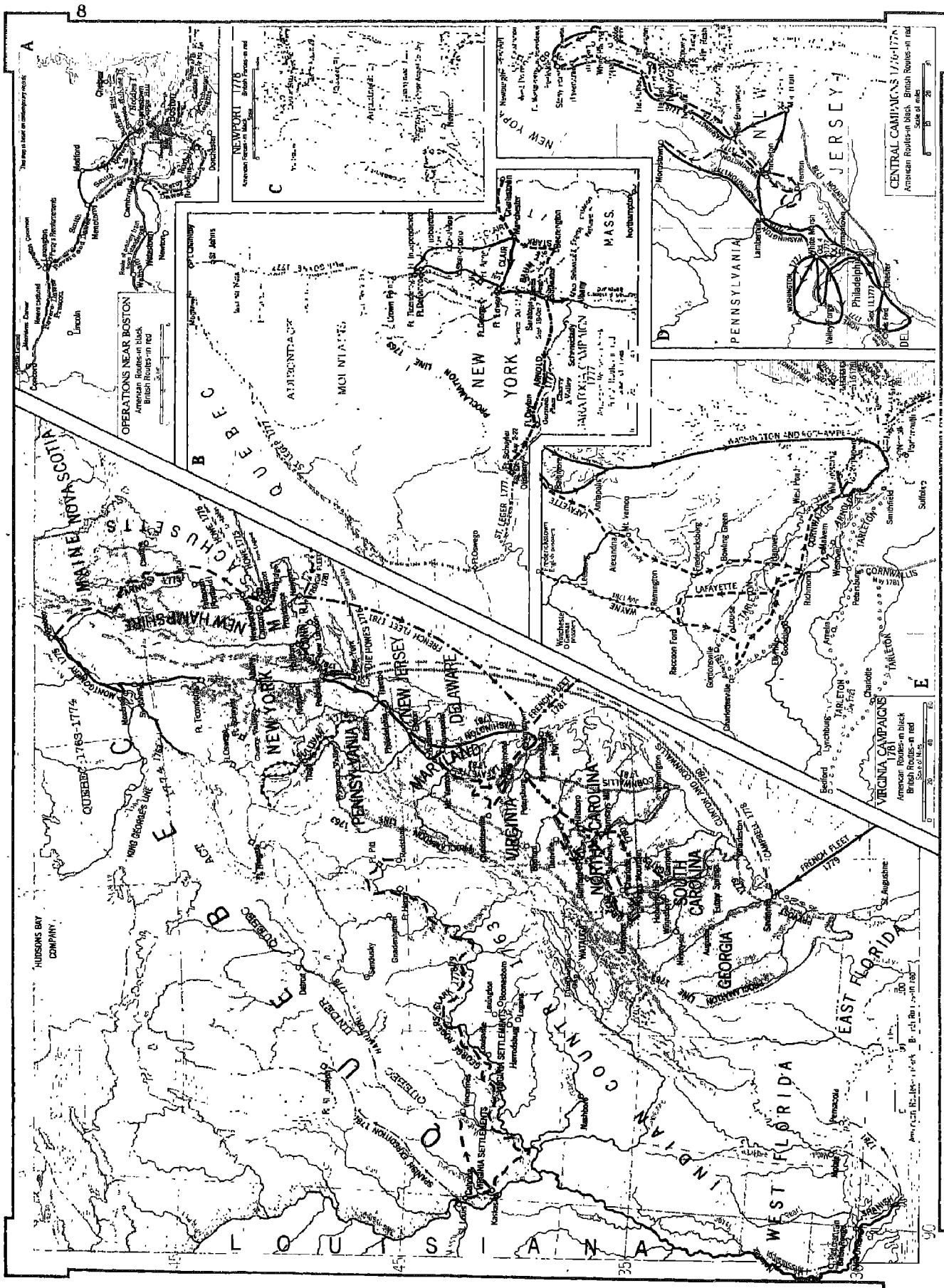
COLONIAL COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES

- A TO 1690
- B 1690-1774
- Area of Settlement 1700
- Coastal Sea Routes
- Area of Settlement 1700
- The comparative volume of trade 1760 (exports and imports)
- G.B. Great Britain E. Europe
- W.I. West Indies Col. Intercolonial
- Forests
- Roads
- French Posts
- Indian Villages
- Arches
- Mills
- Ships
- Staves
- Iron
- Unimproved
- Run
- Trailer

ROUTES OF THE
TRIANGULAR TRADE
IN THE ATLANTIC



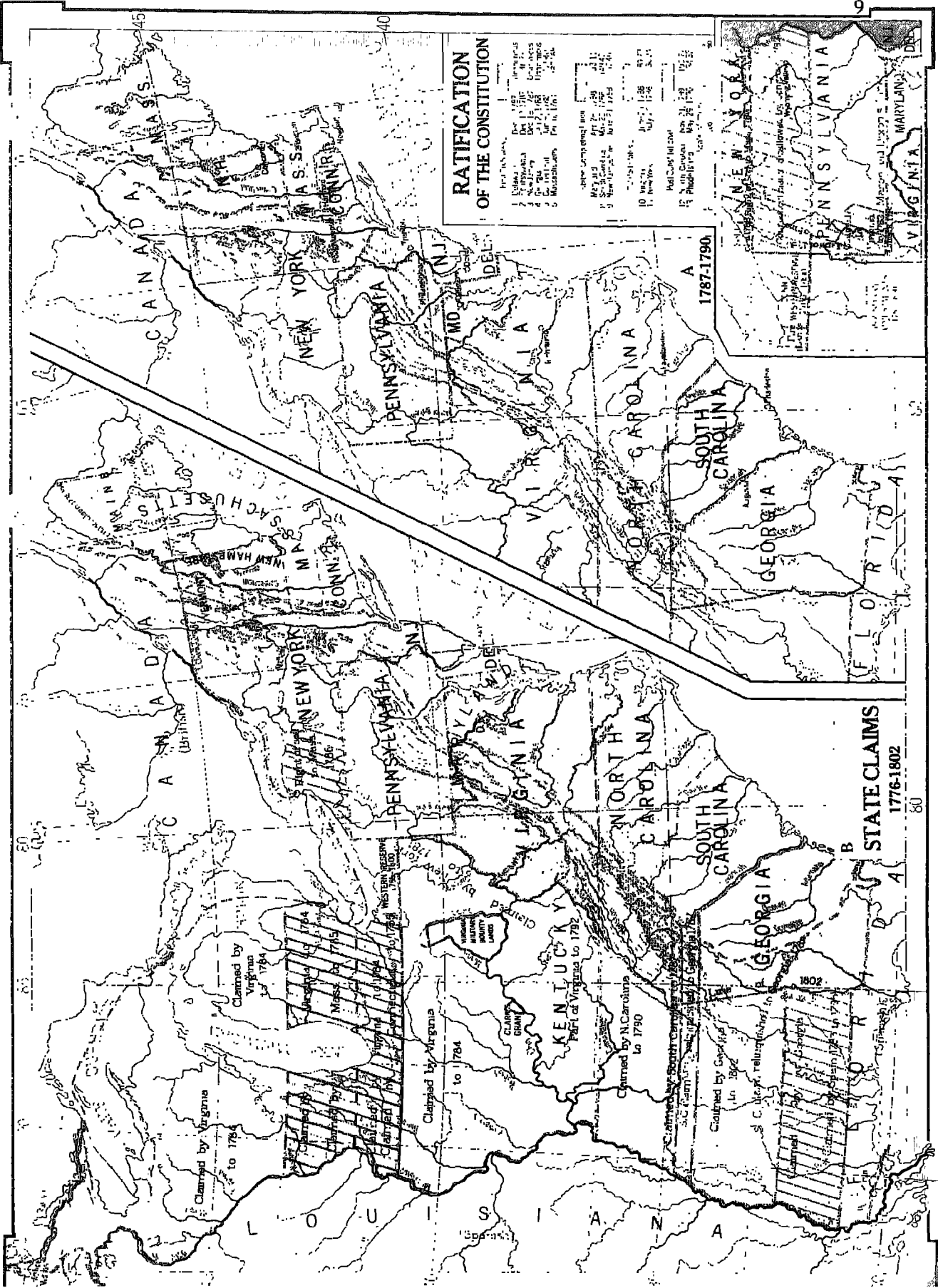
Map A7 Colonial Commerce



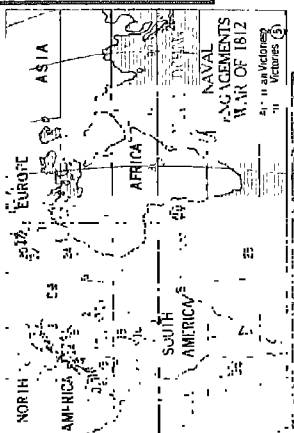
REVOLUTIONARY WAR 1775-1783

Copyright by Doney-Cappert Co.

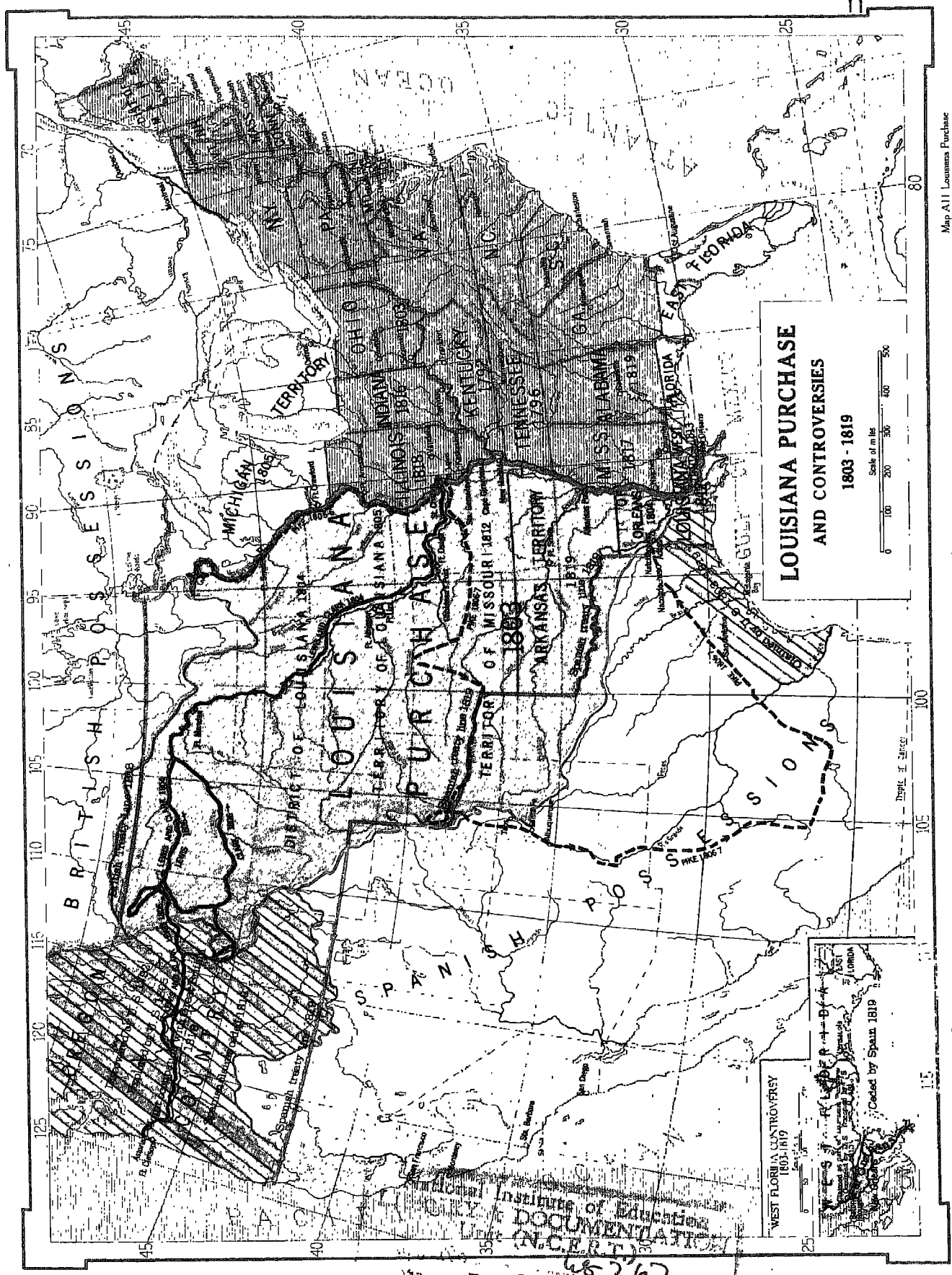
Map A8 Revolutionary War



A 1763 - 1803
B 1803 - 1829
AND WAR OF 1812



Map A10 Westward Movement



**LOUISIANA PURCHASE
AND CONTROVERSIES
1803 - 1819**

Scale of miles
0 100 200 300 400 500

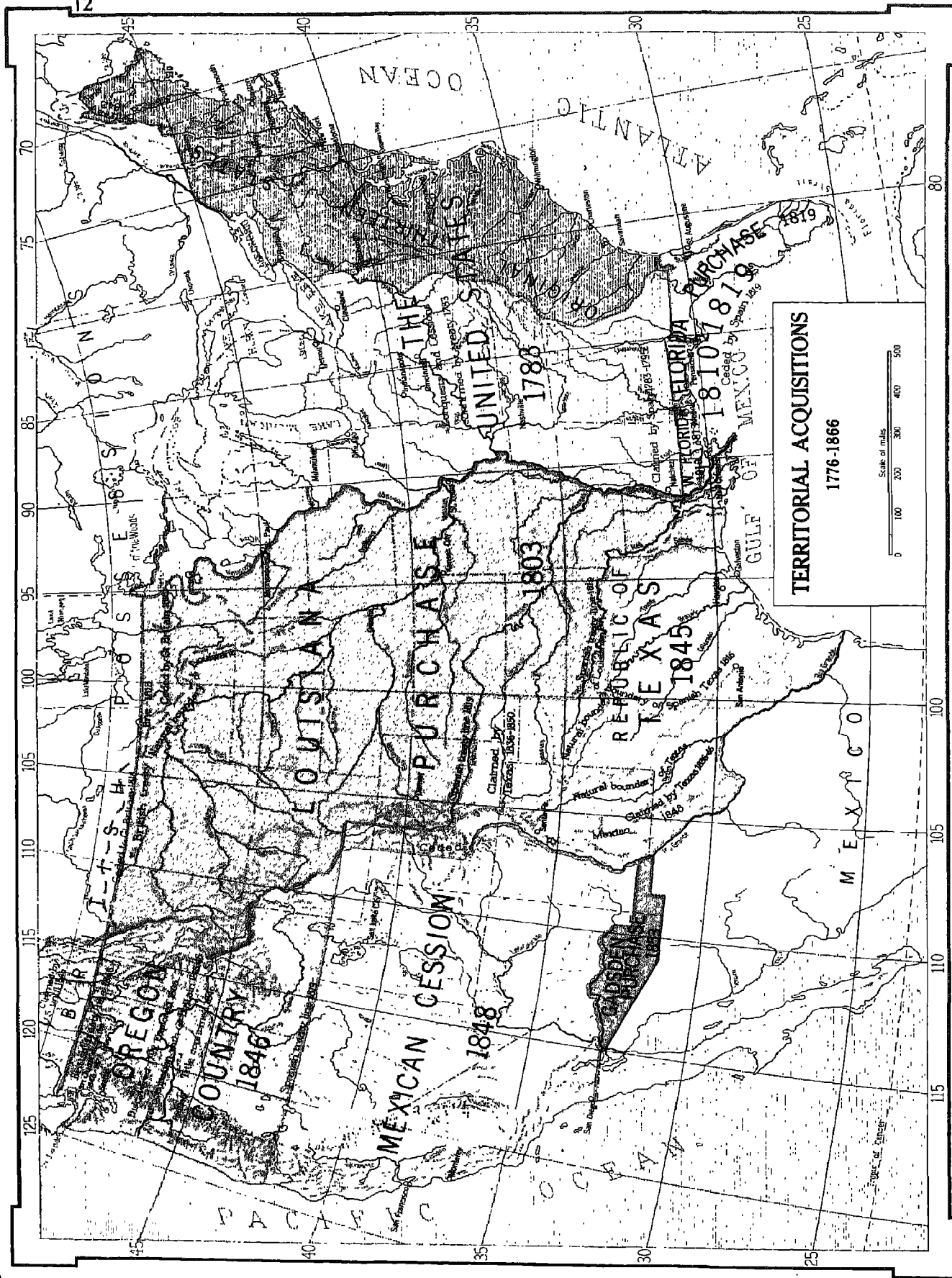
**WEST FLORIDA CONTROVERSY
1803-1819**

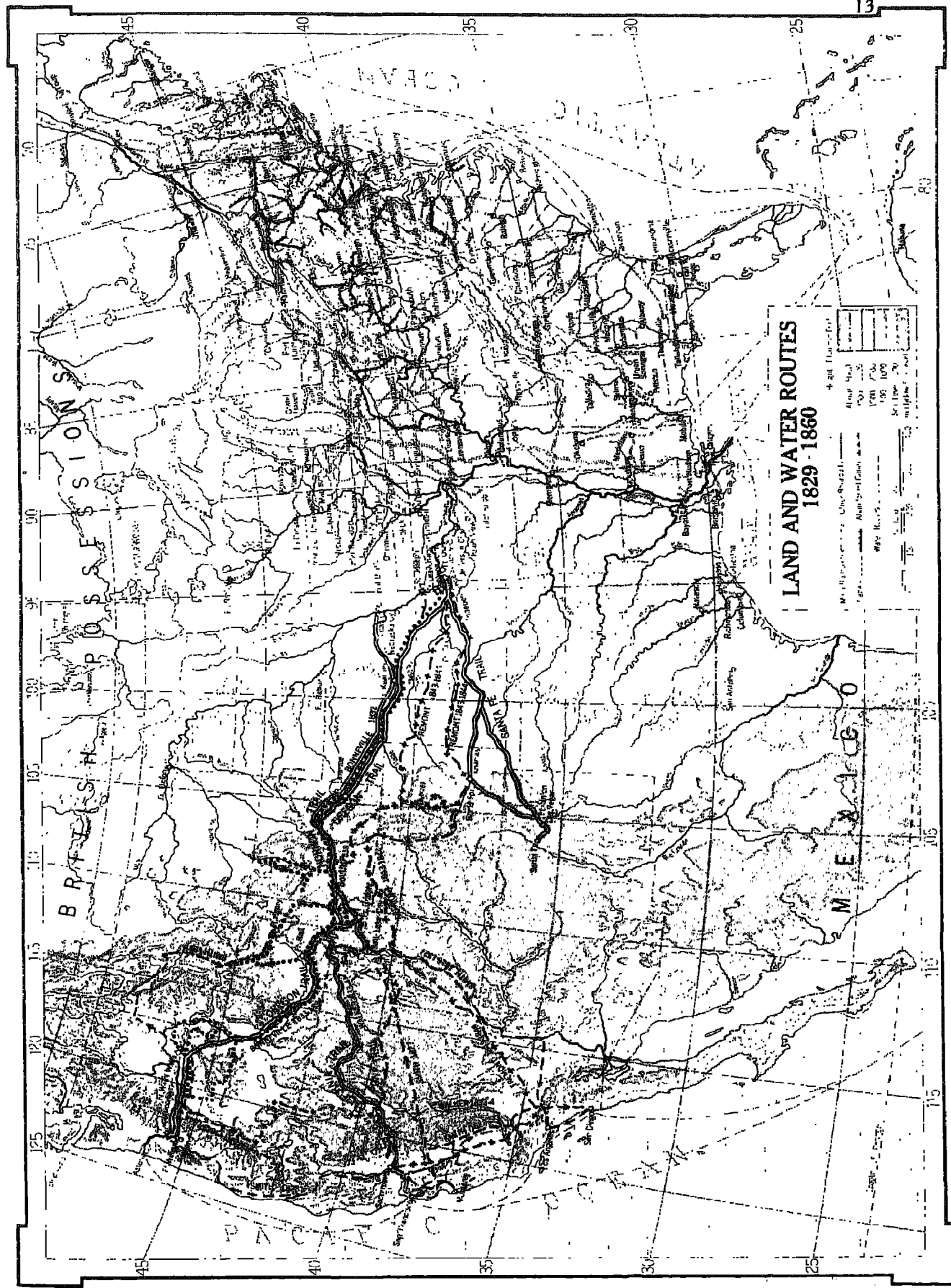
Scale of miles
0 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 450 500

Ceded by Spain 1819

National Institute of Education
DOCUMENTATION
(N.C.E.T.)

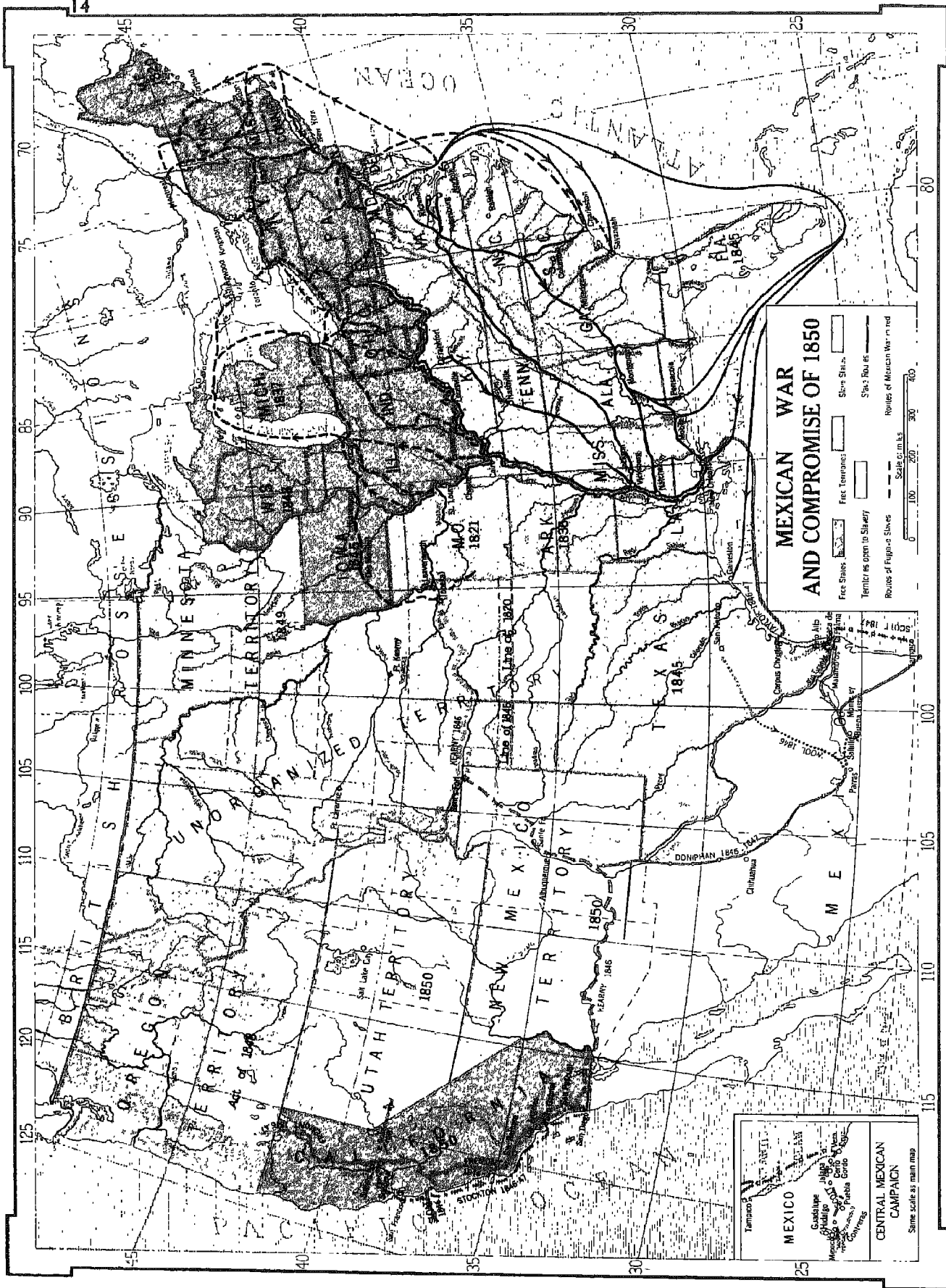
7. R. 68.267

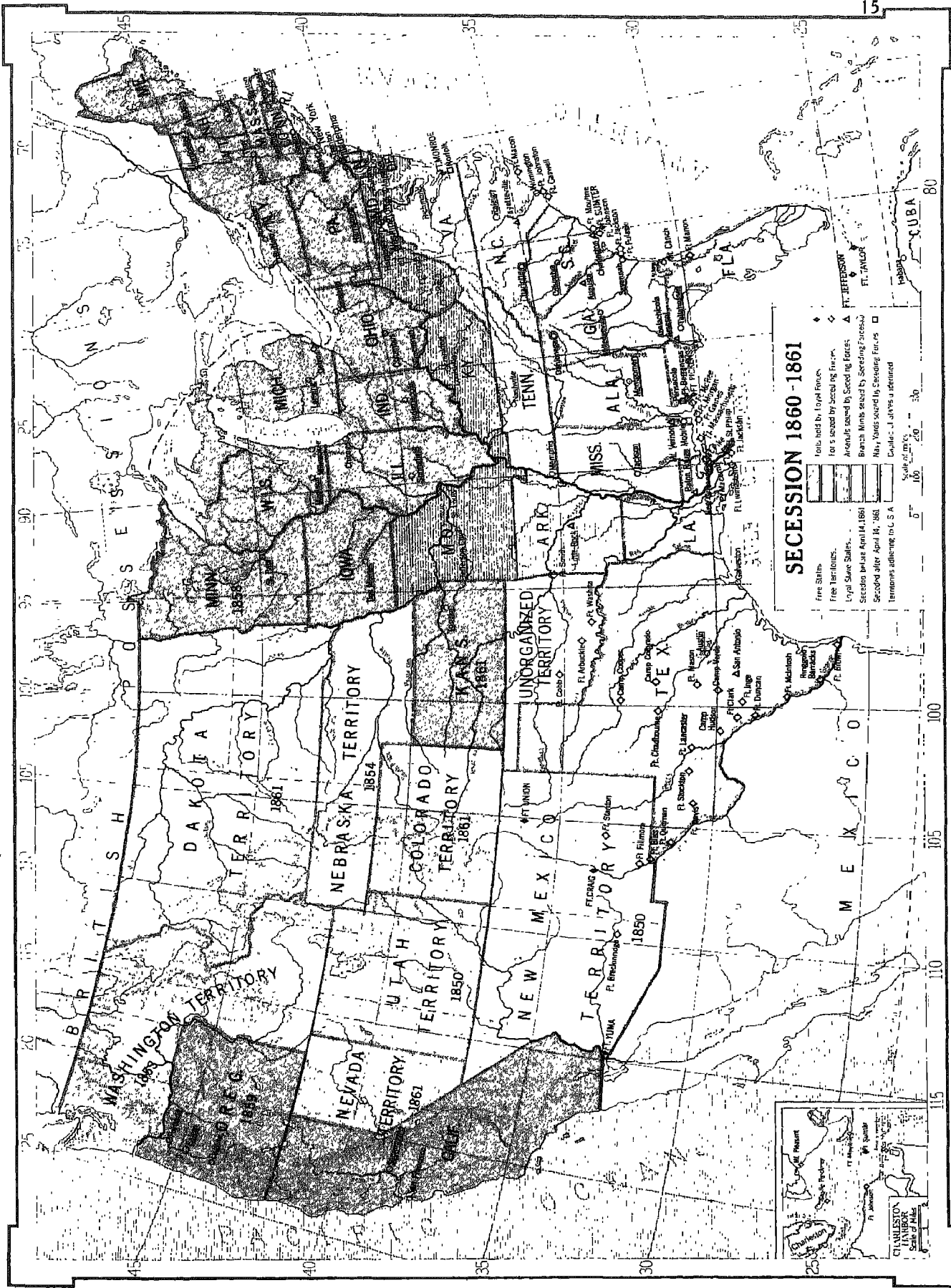


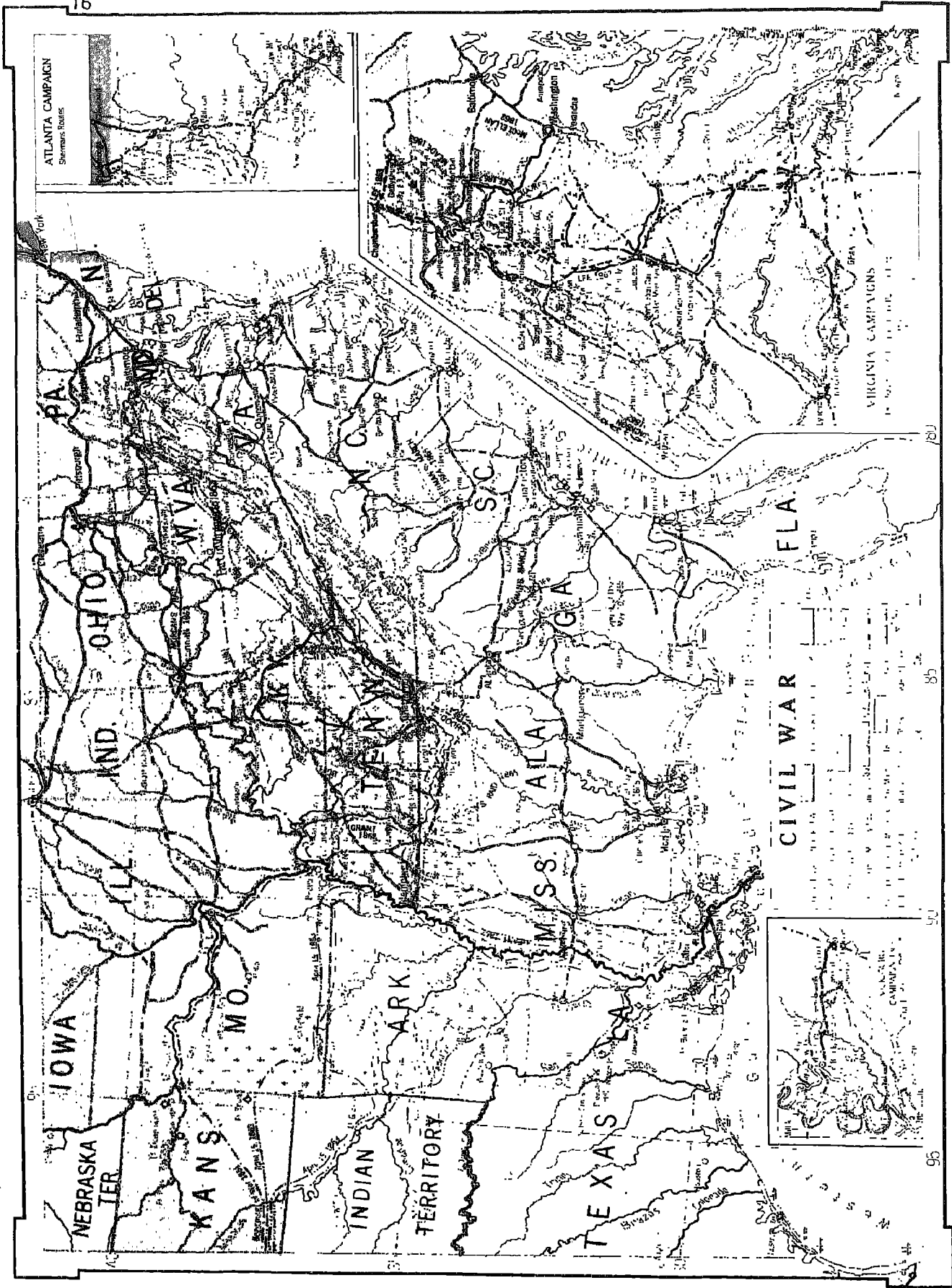


LAND AND WATER ROUTES 1829-1860

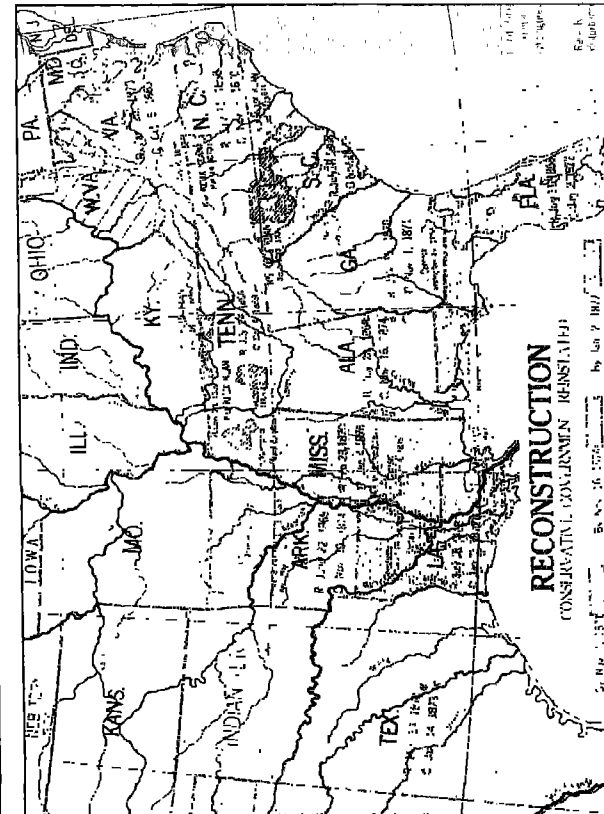
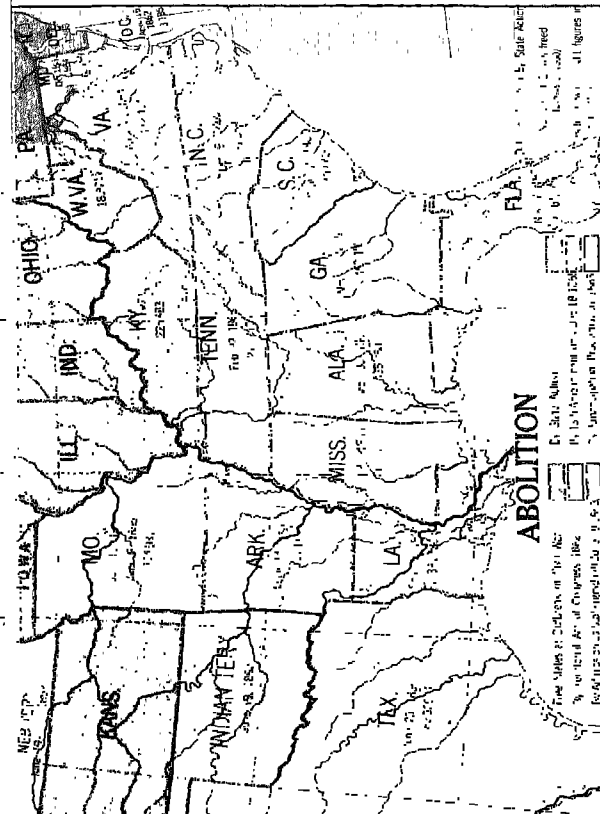
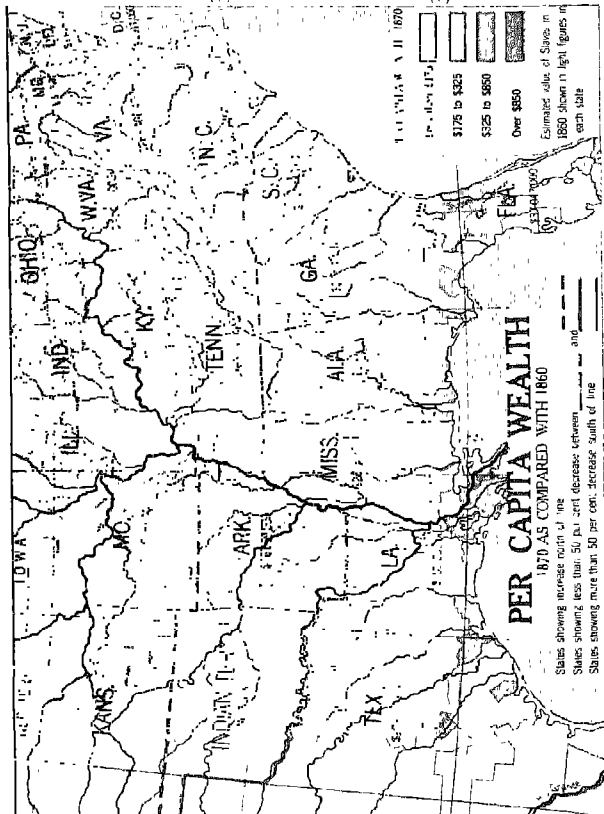
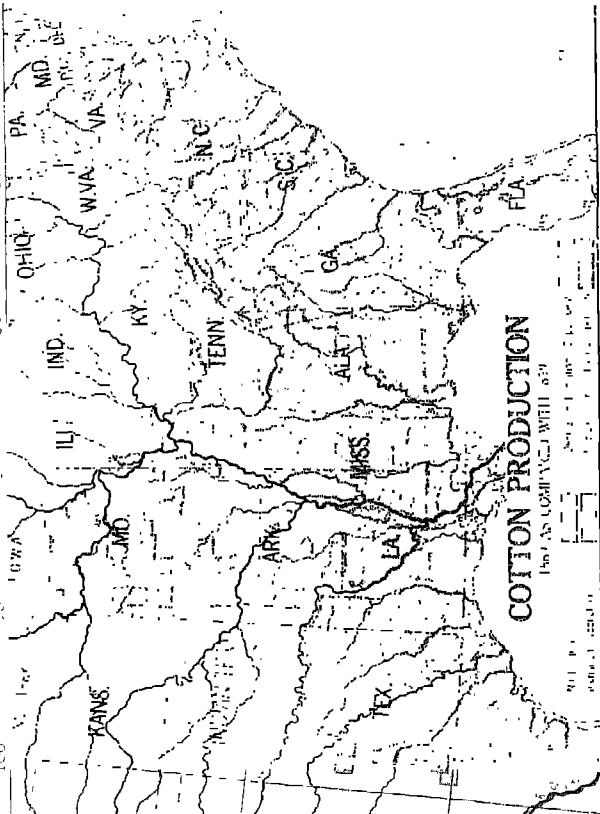
Legend	Scale
Land Routes	0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125
Water Routes	0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125
Indian Reservations	0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125
Other Features	0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125

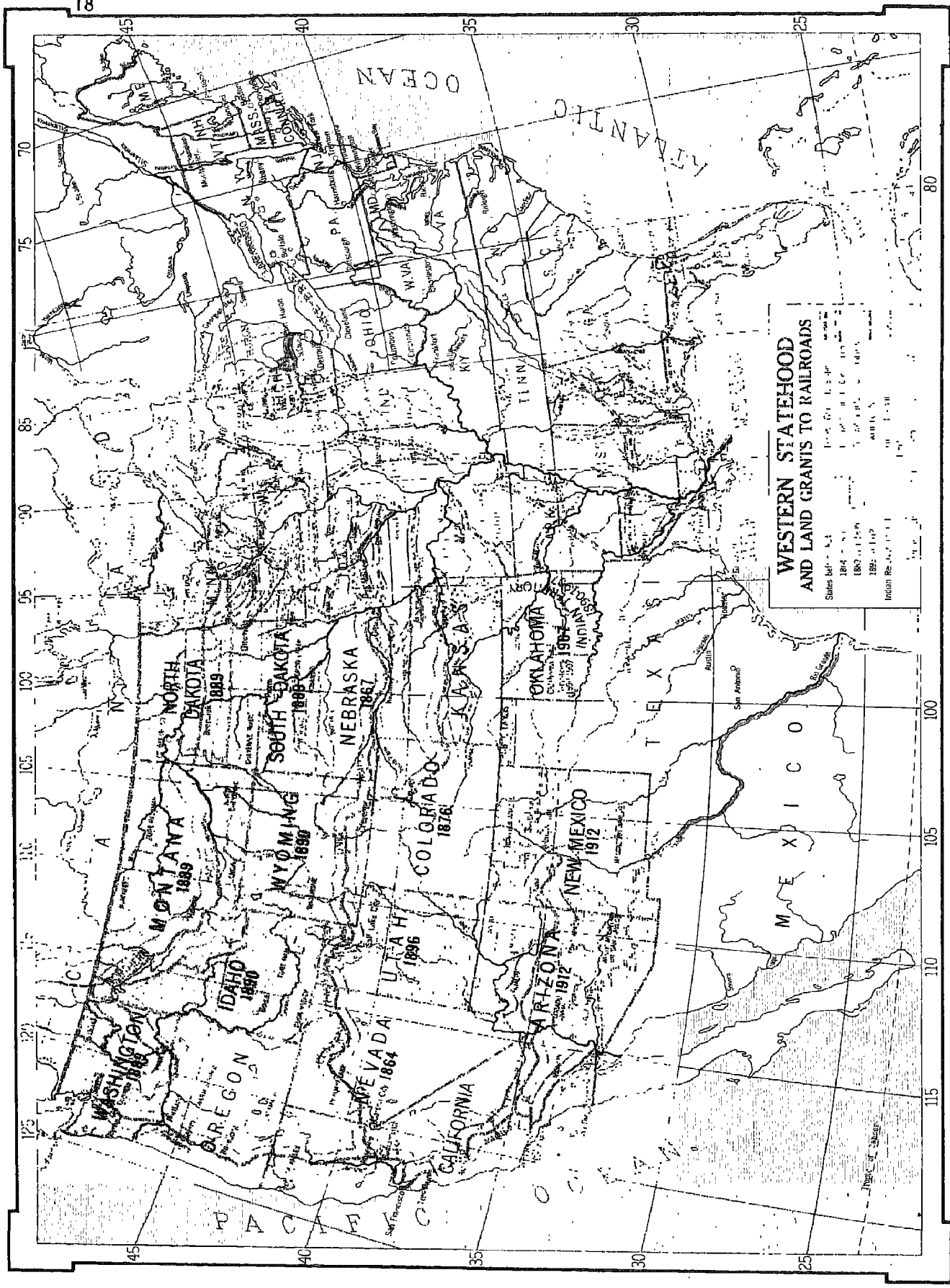


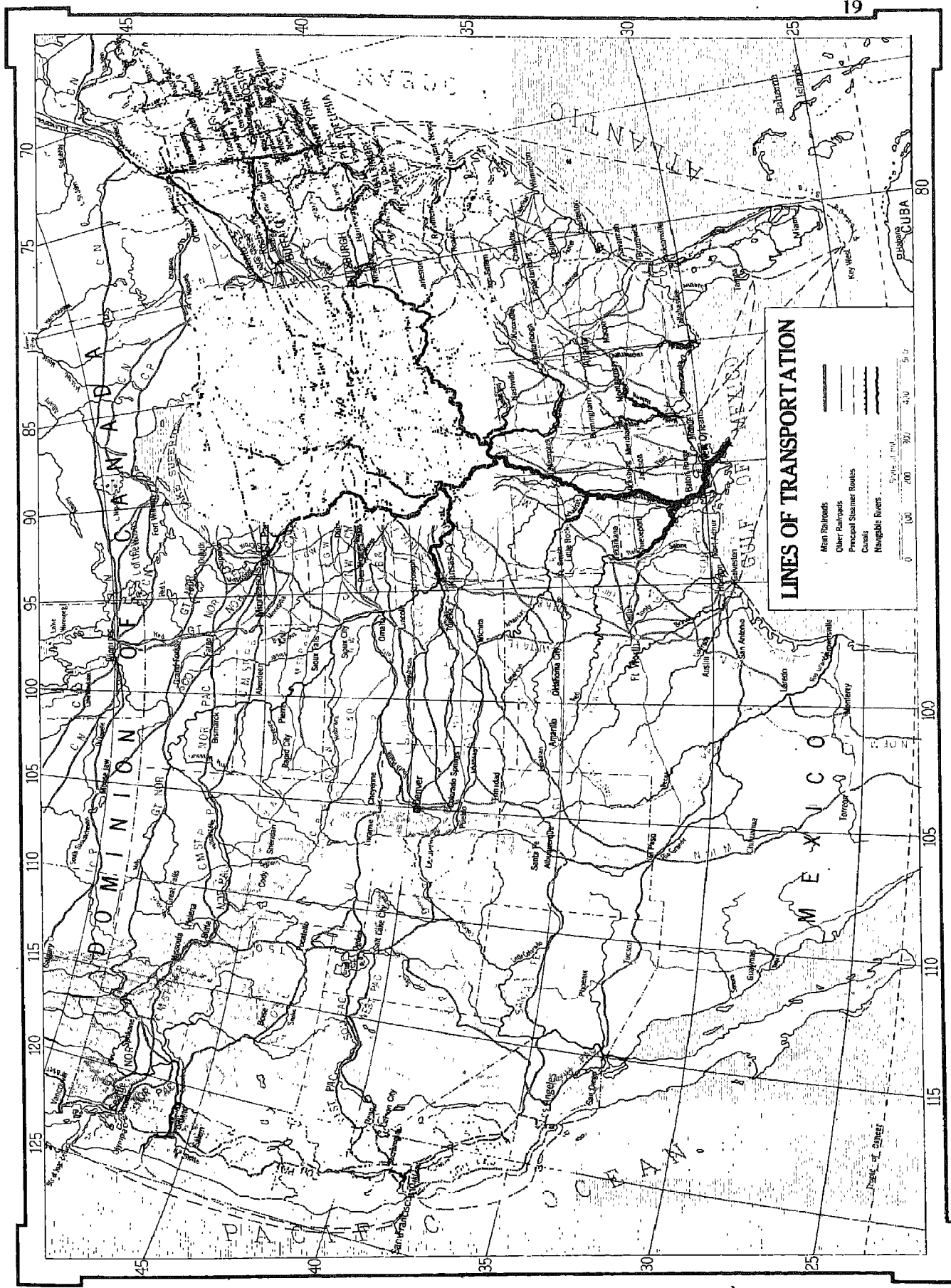




Map No. 6 Civil War, 1861-1865

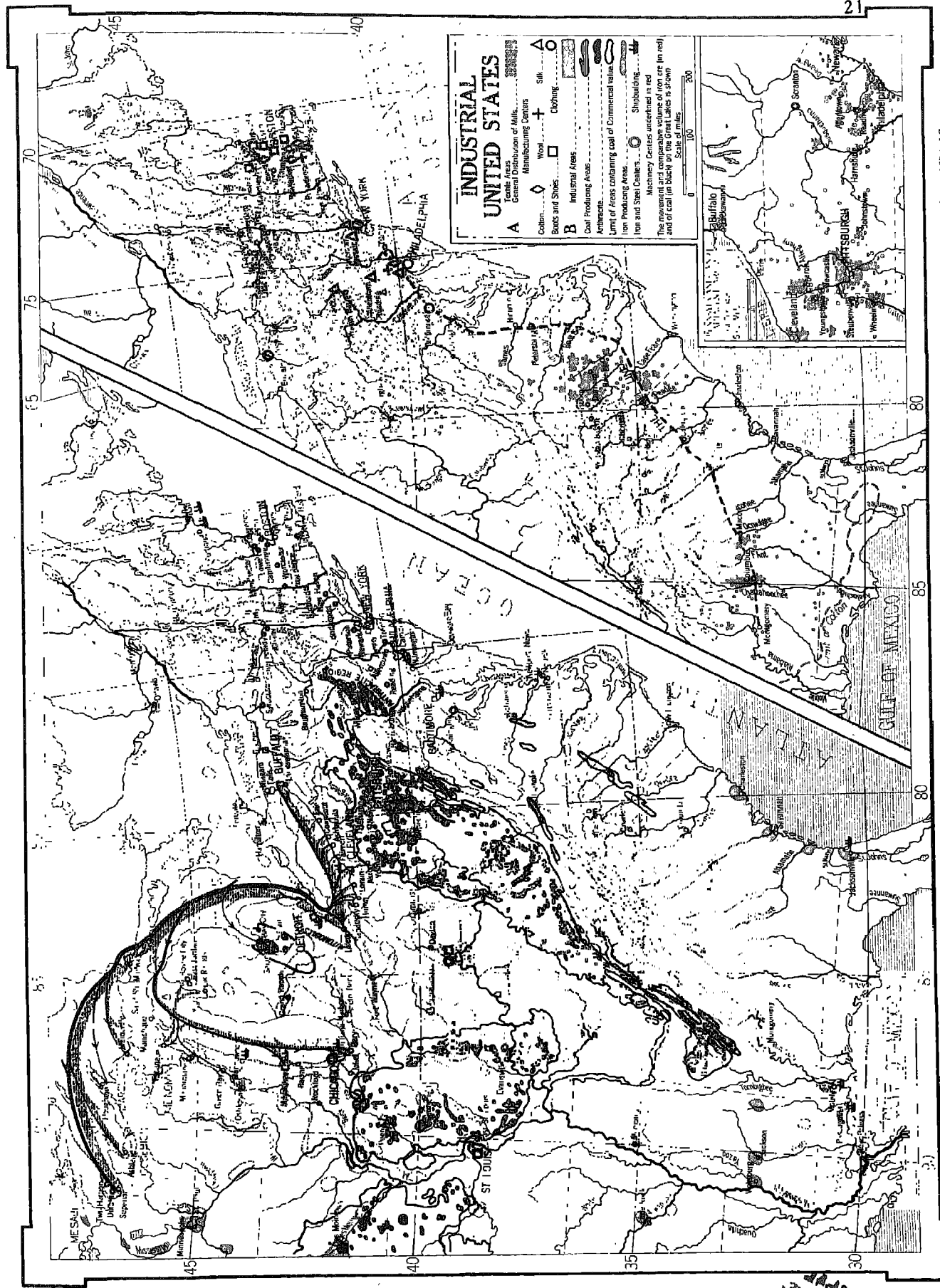


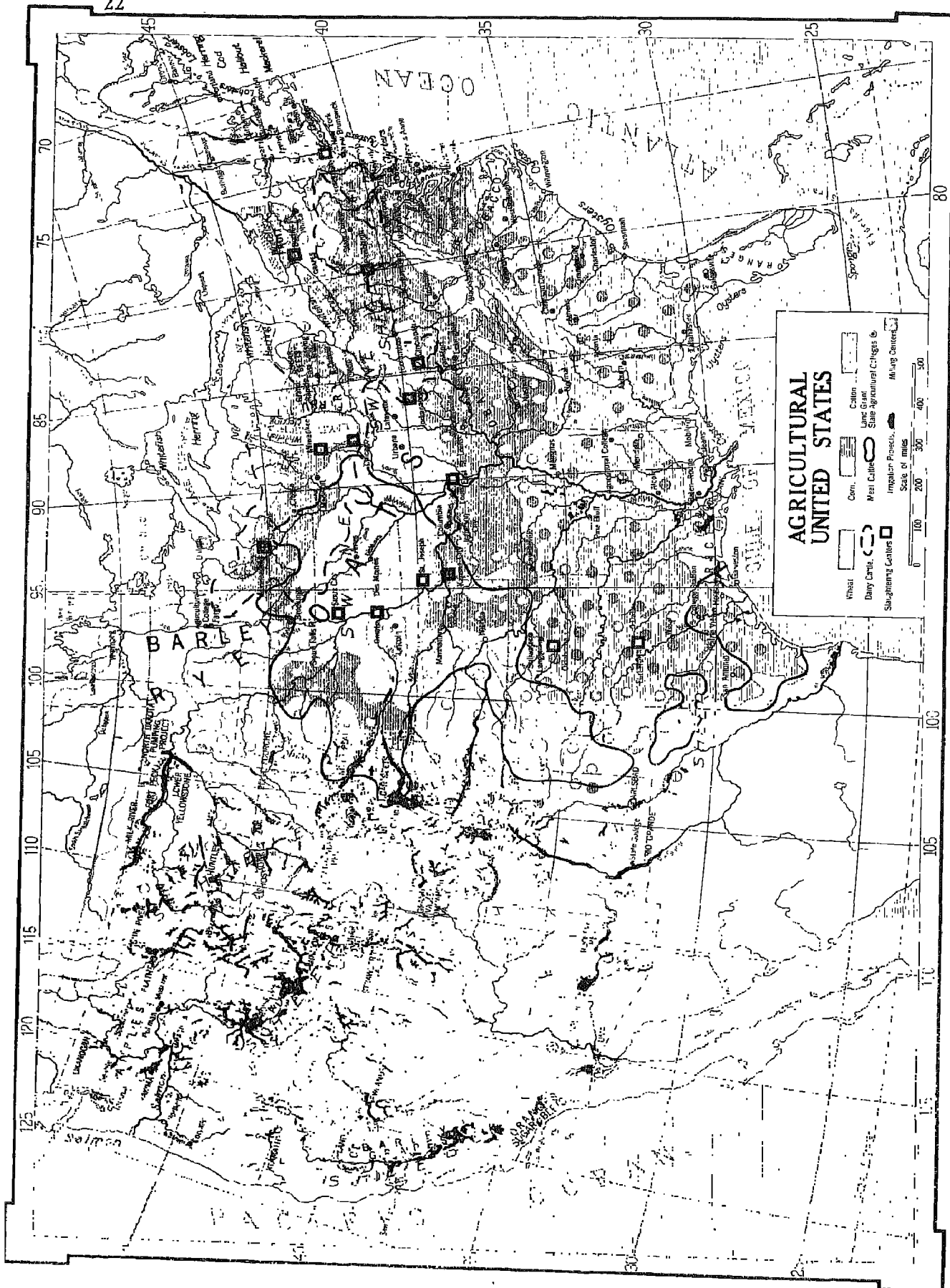


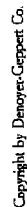


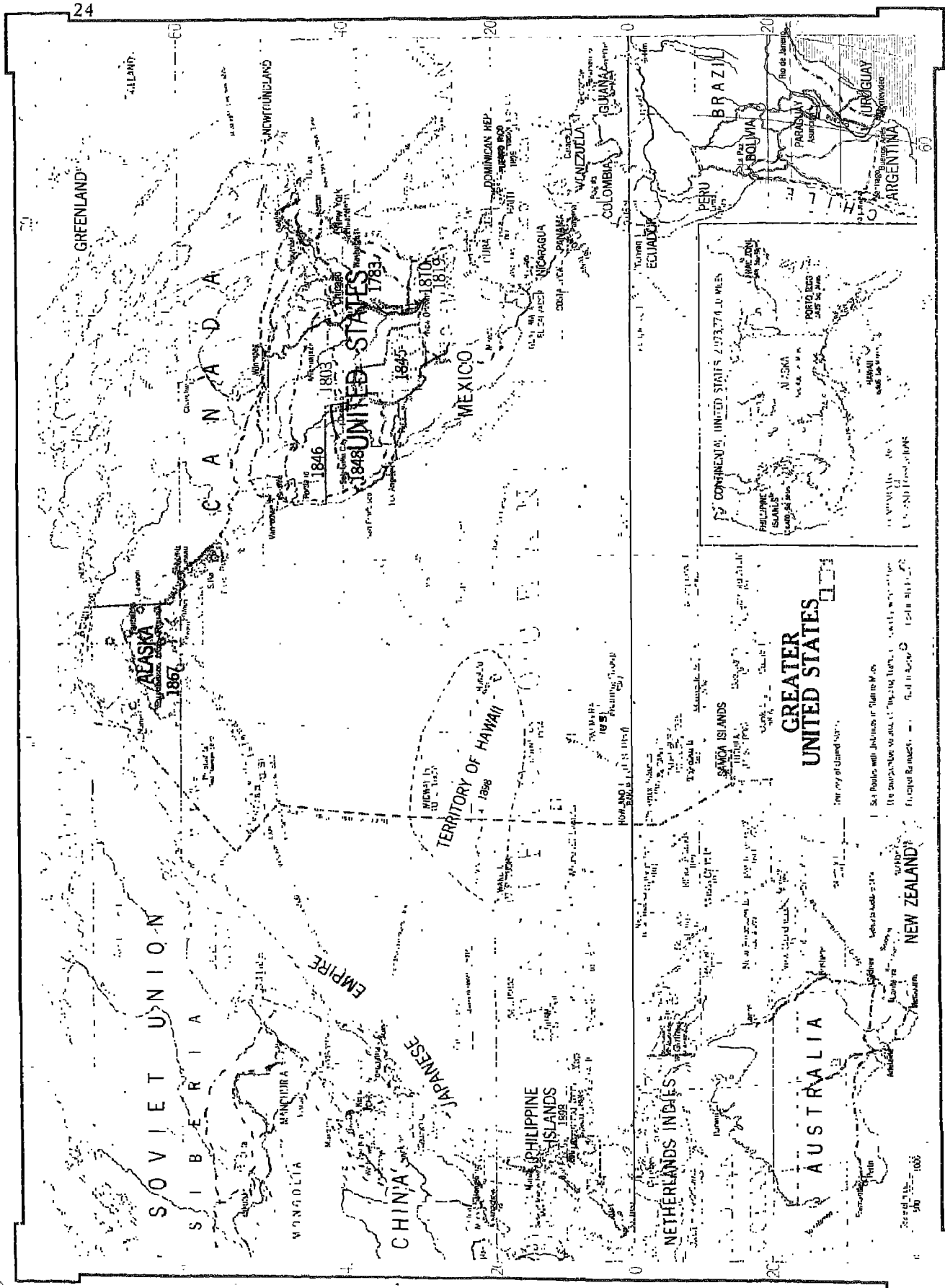
Map A19 Lines of Transportation.

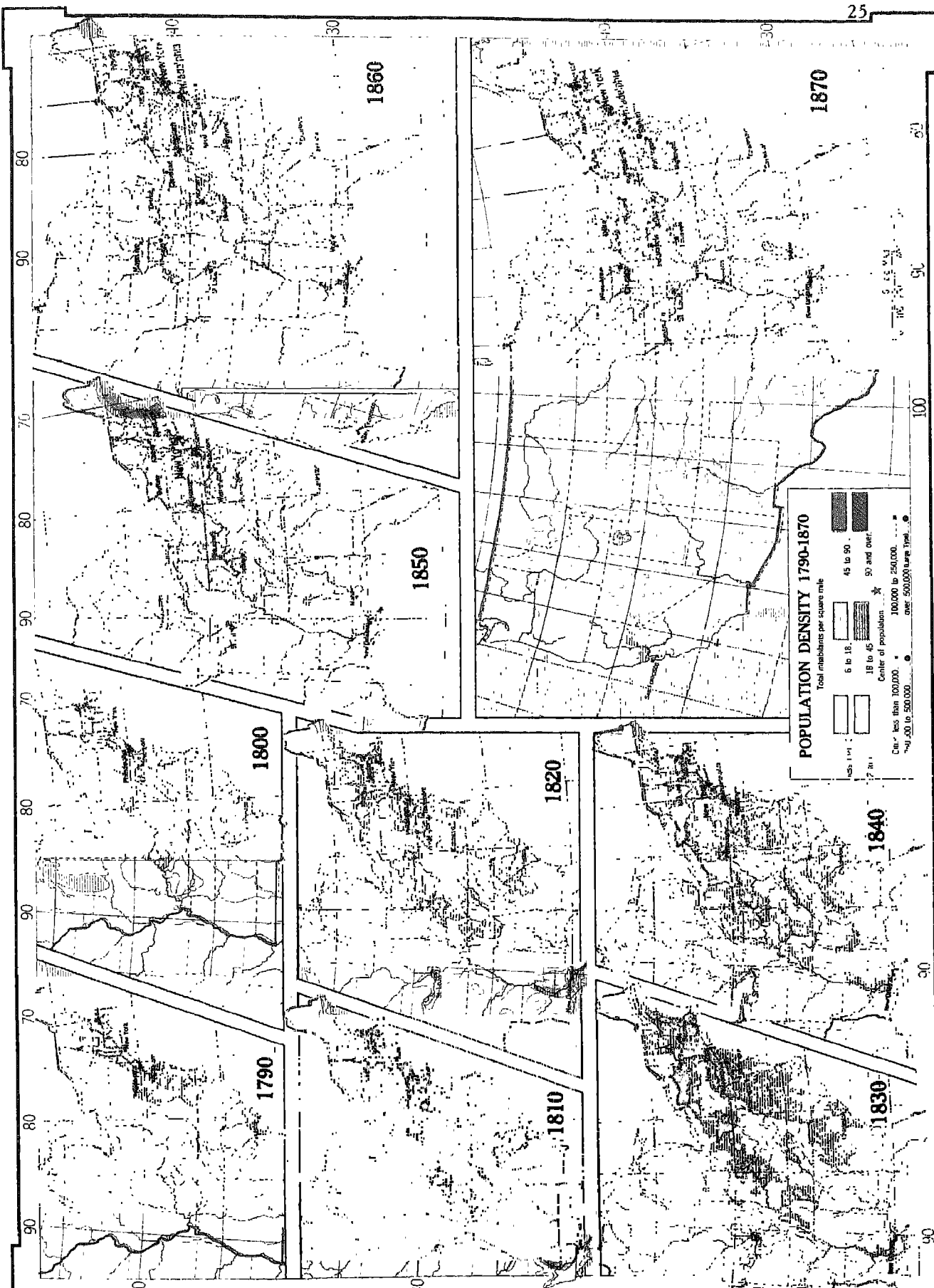


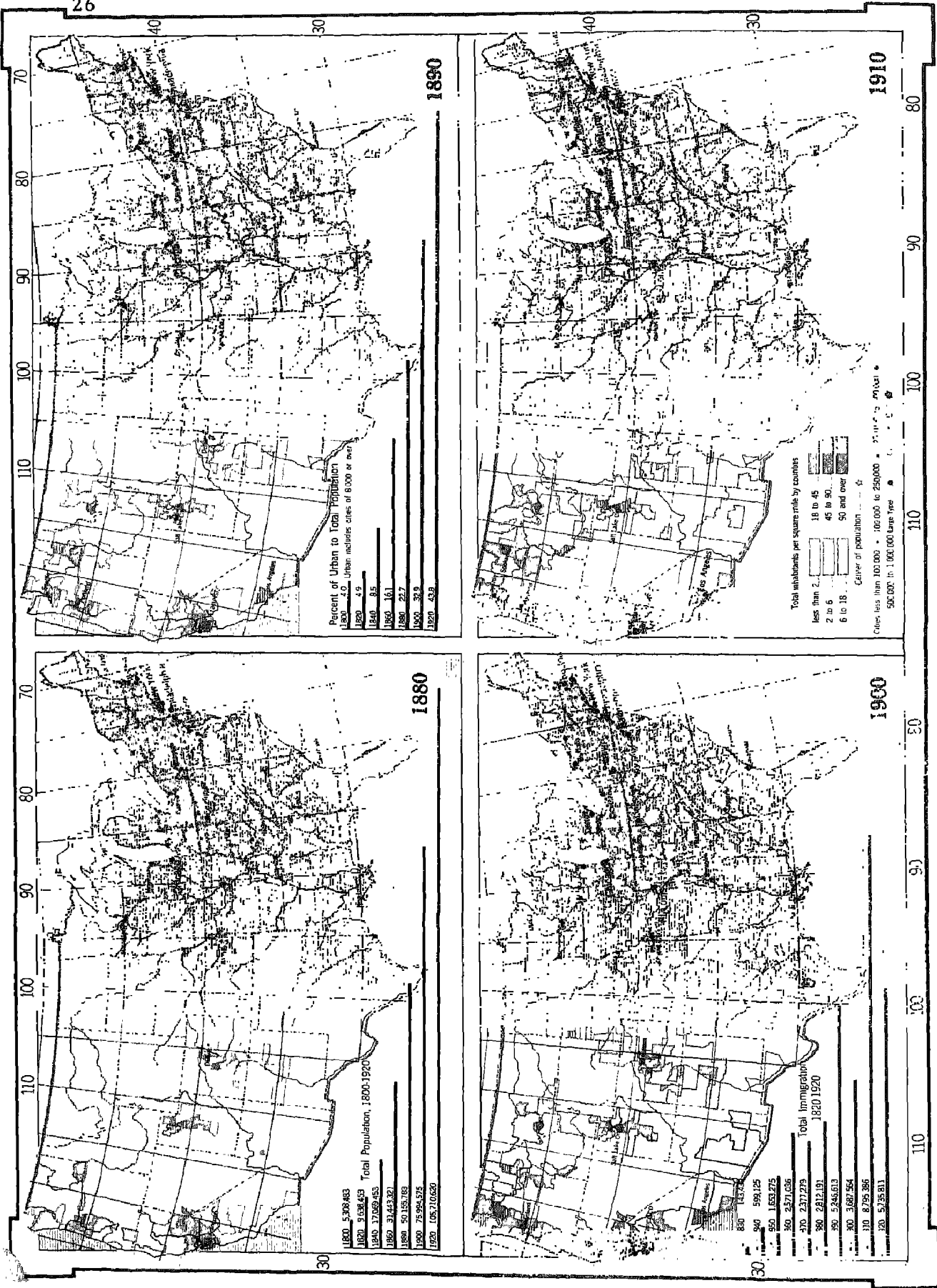


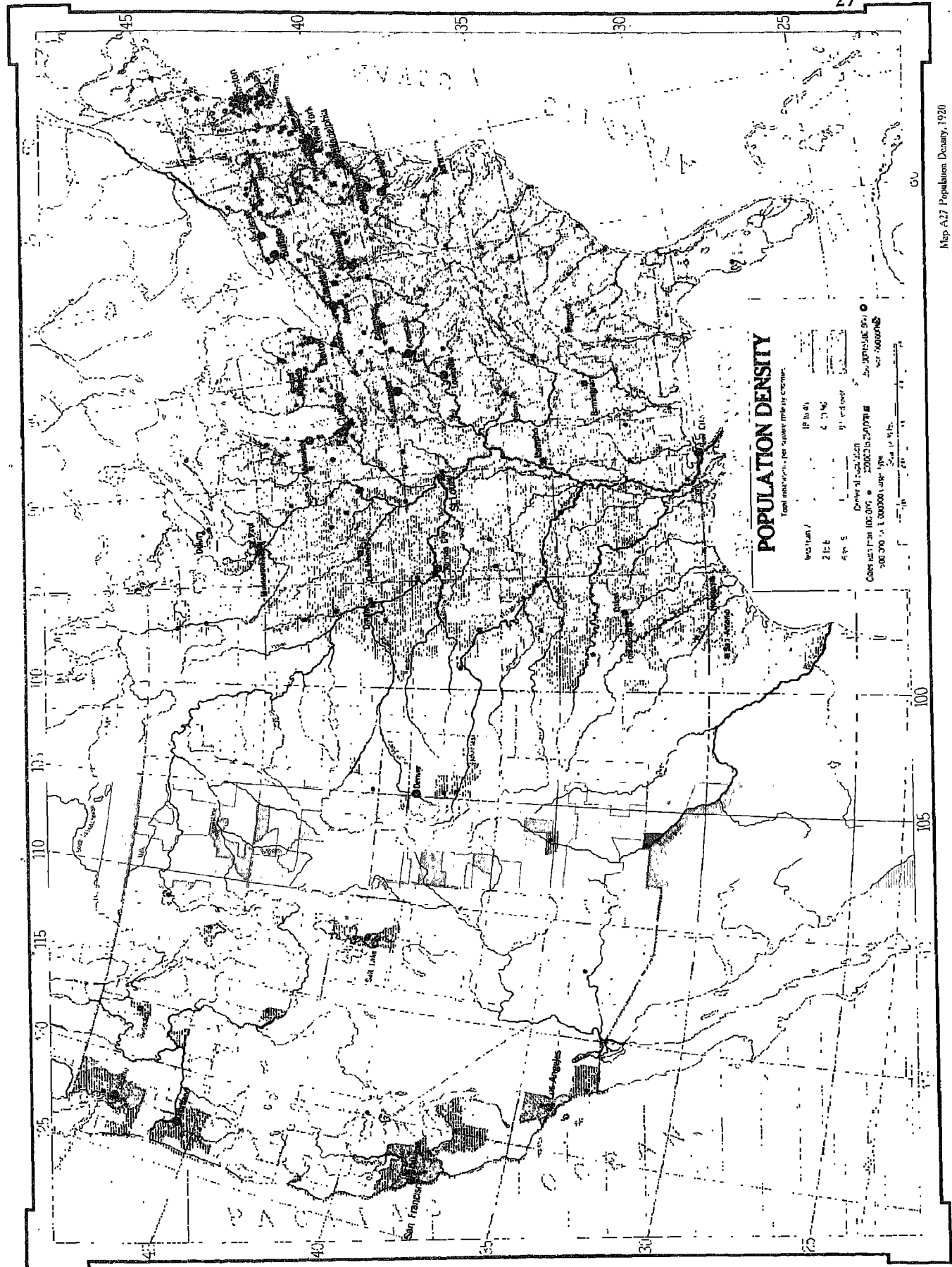


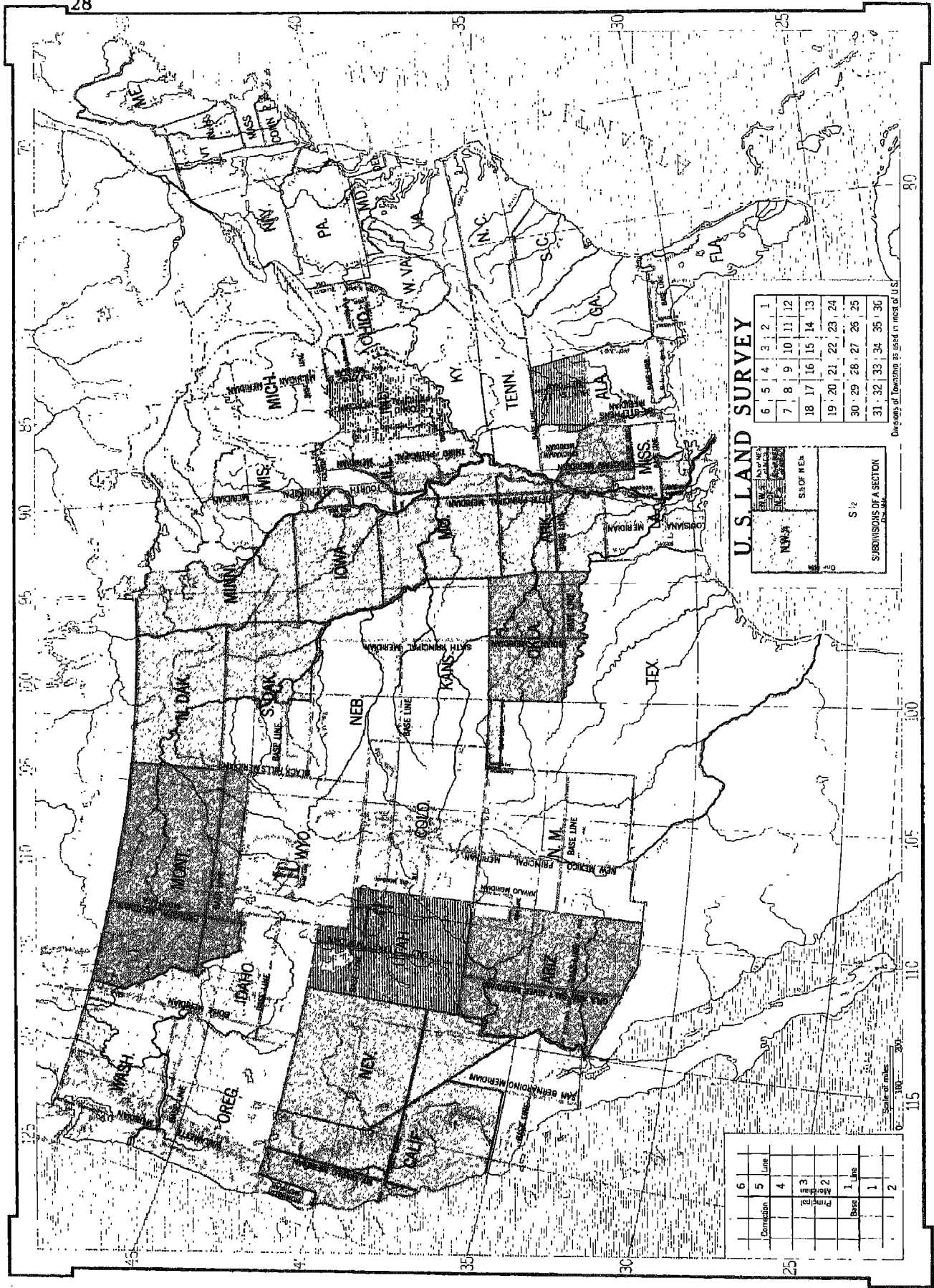


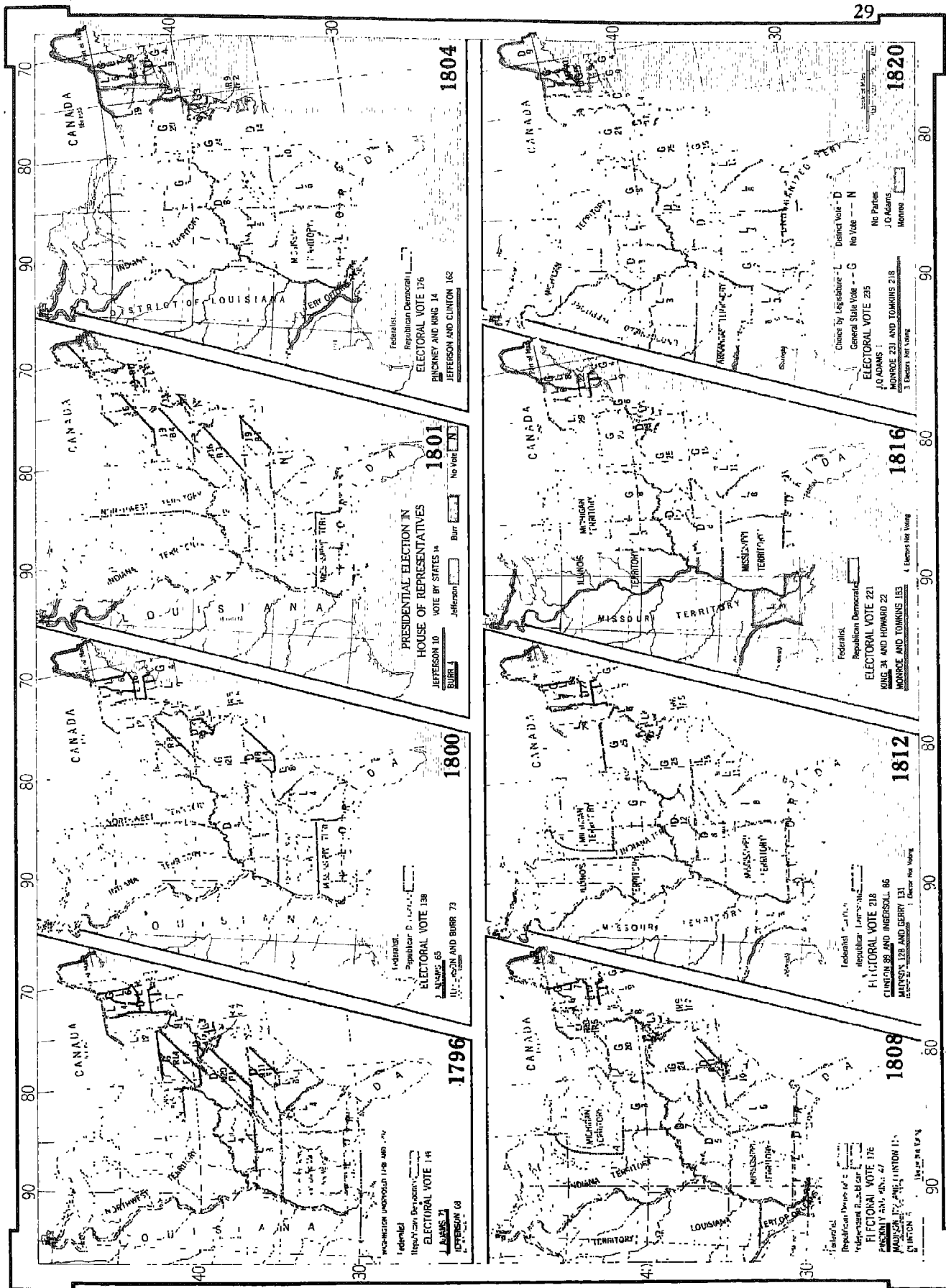


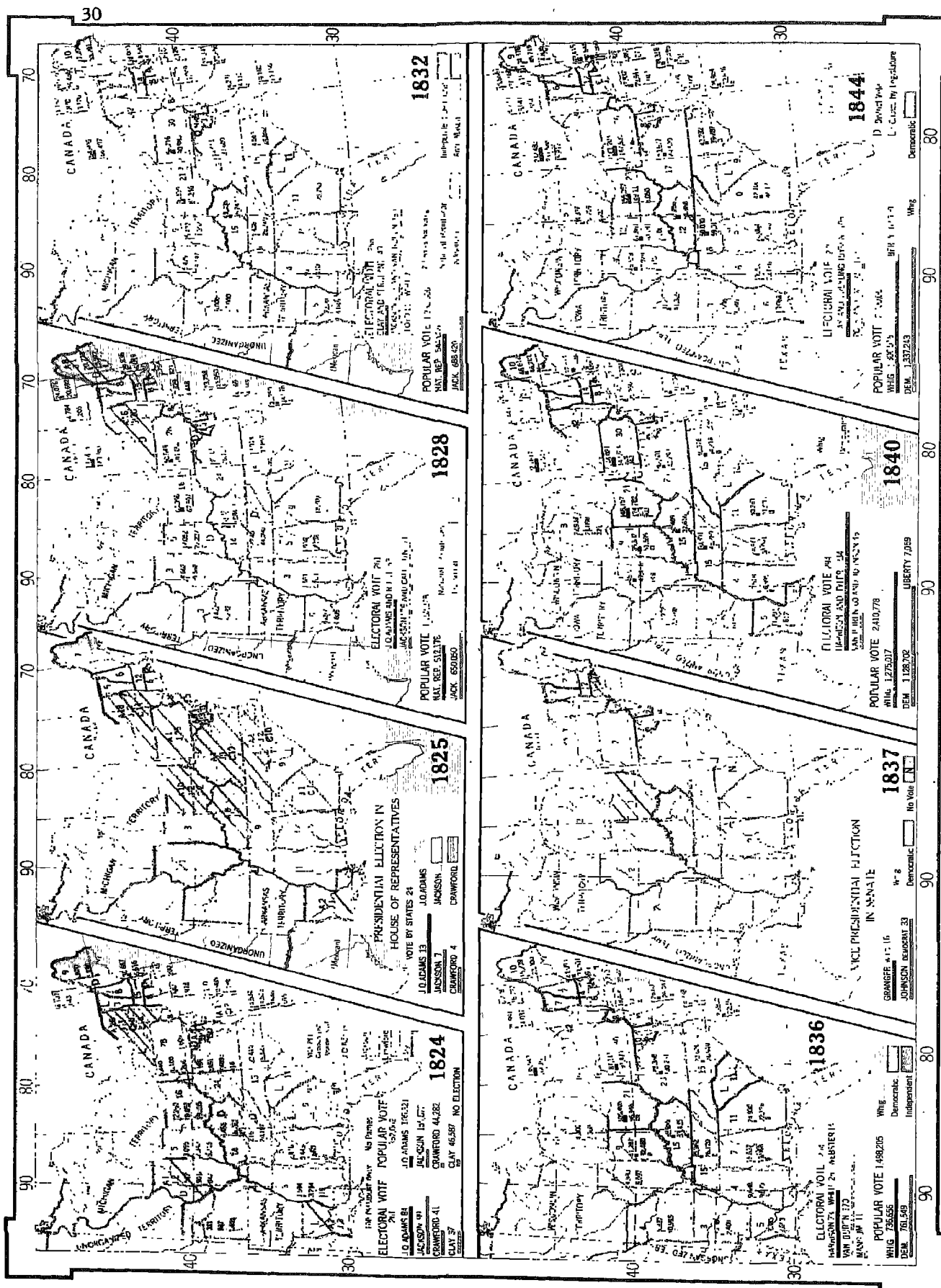


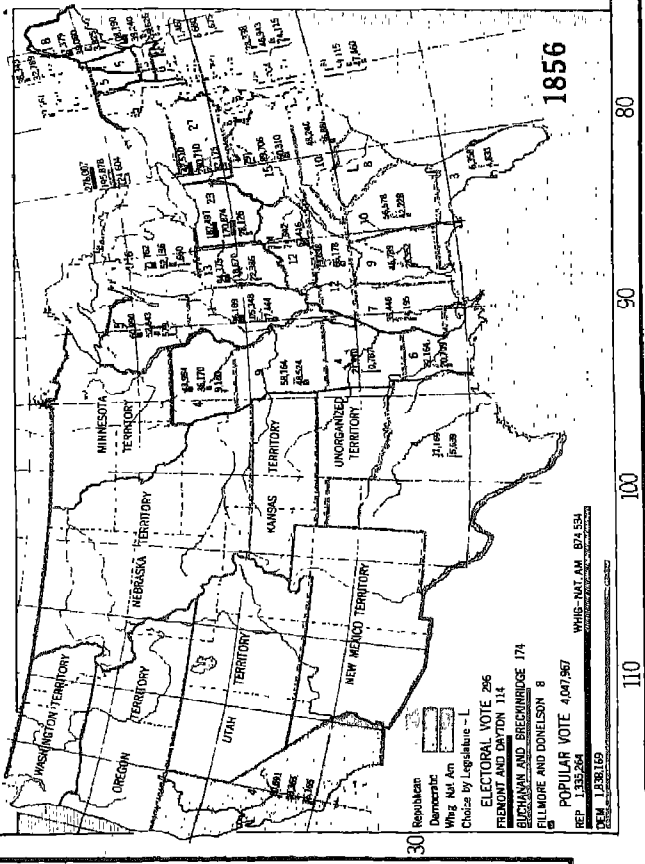
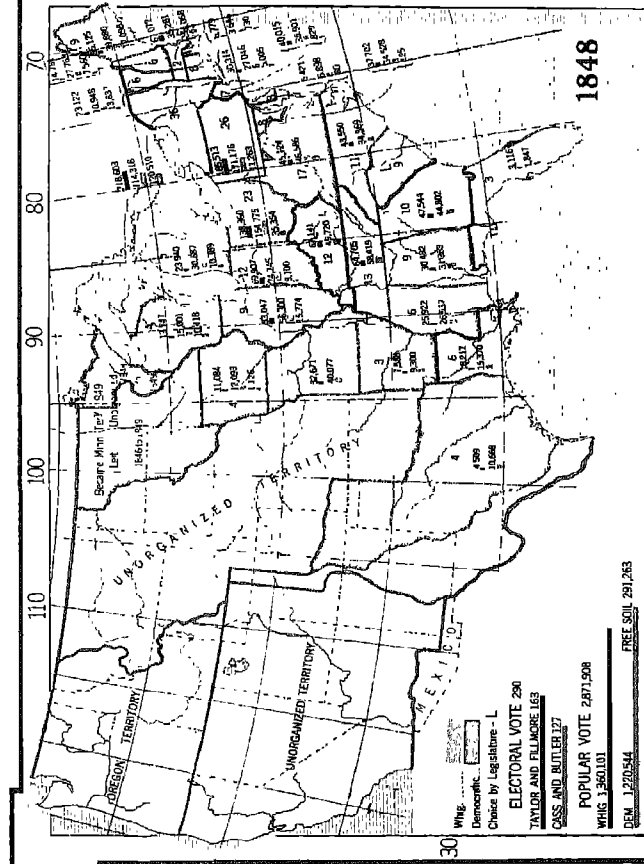
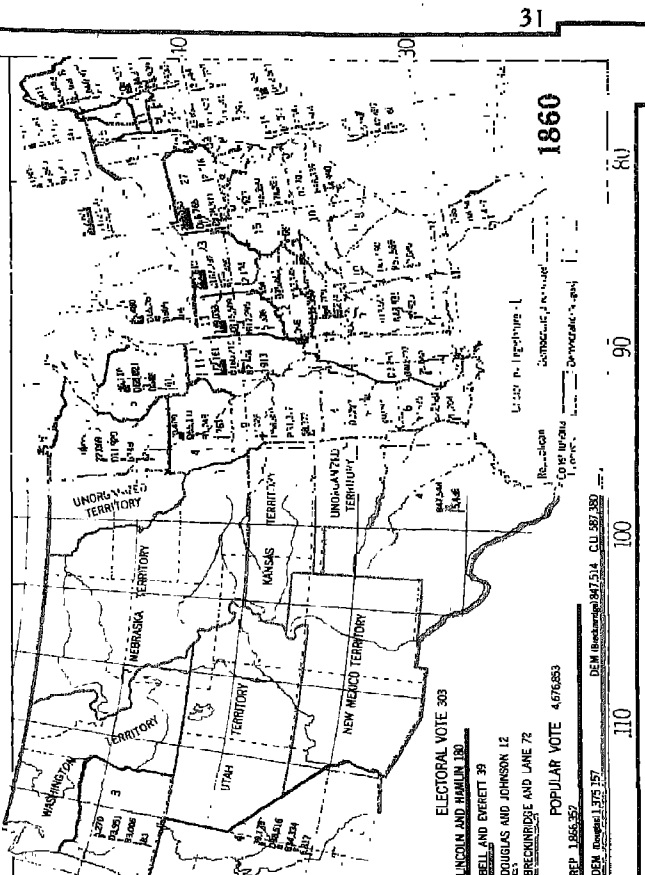
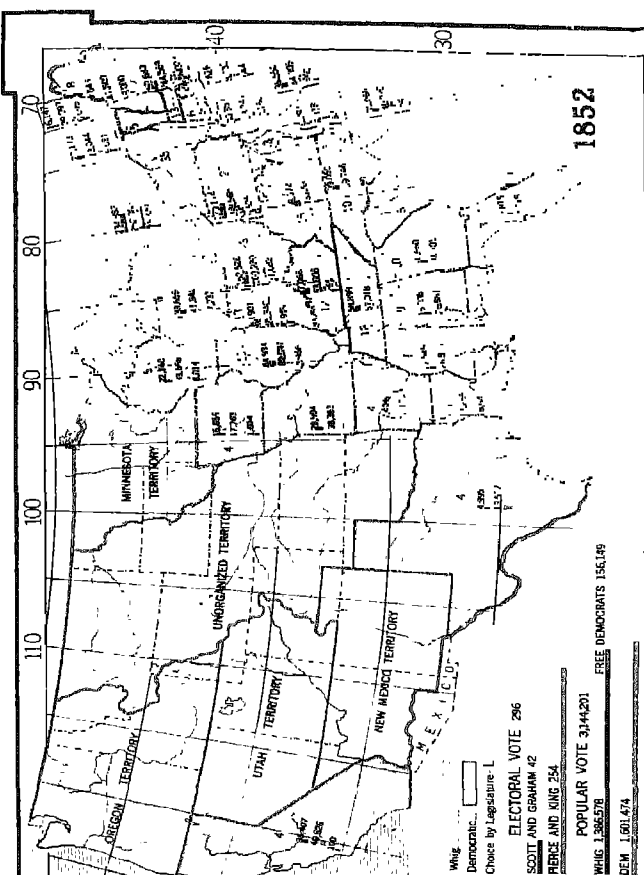


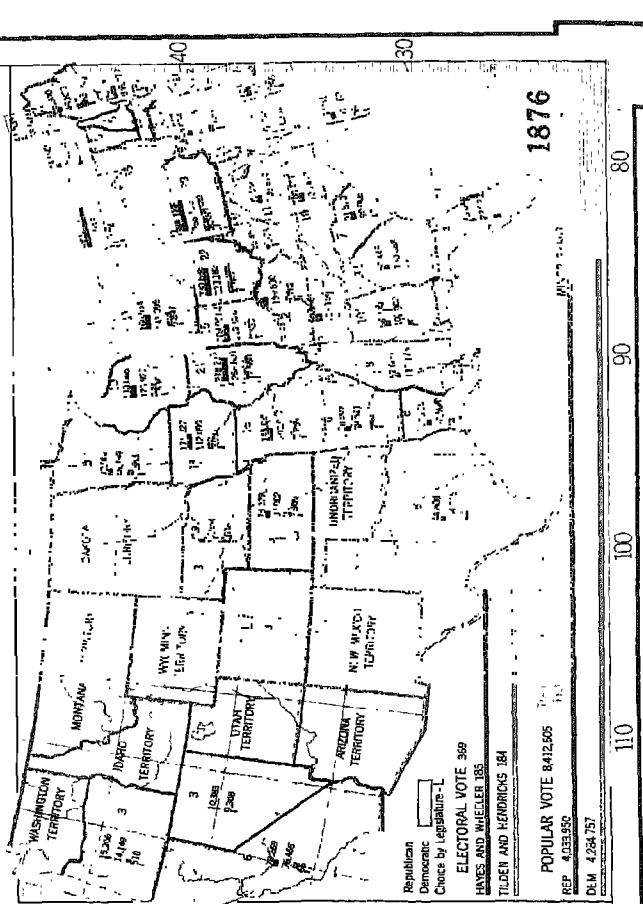
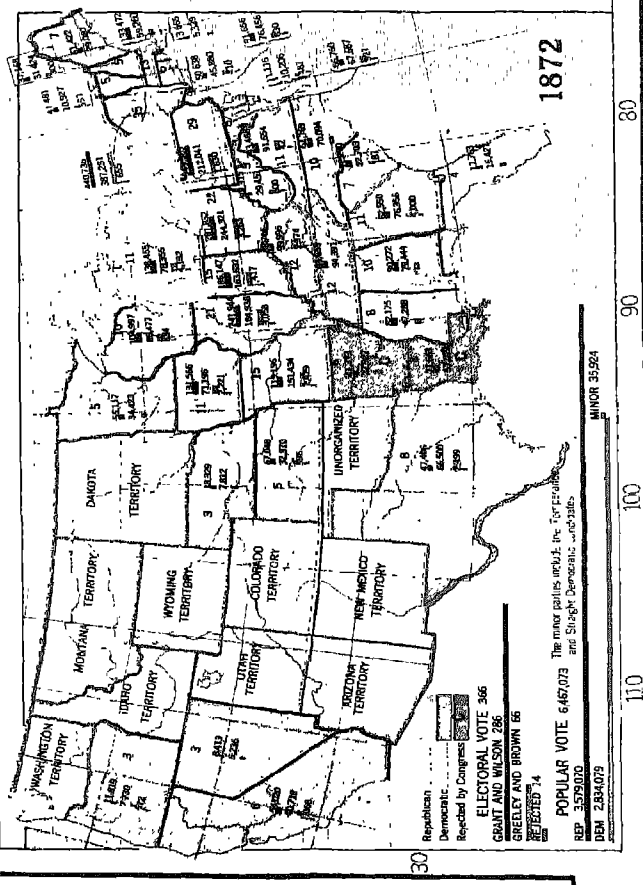
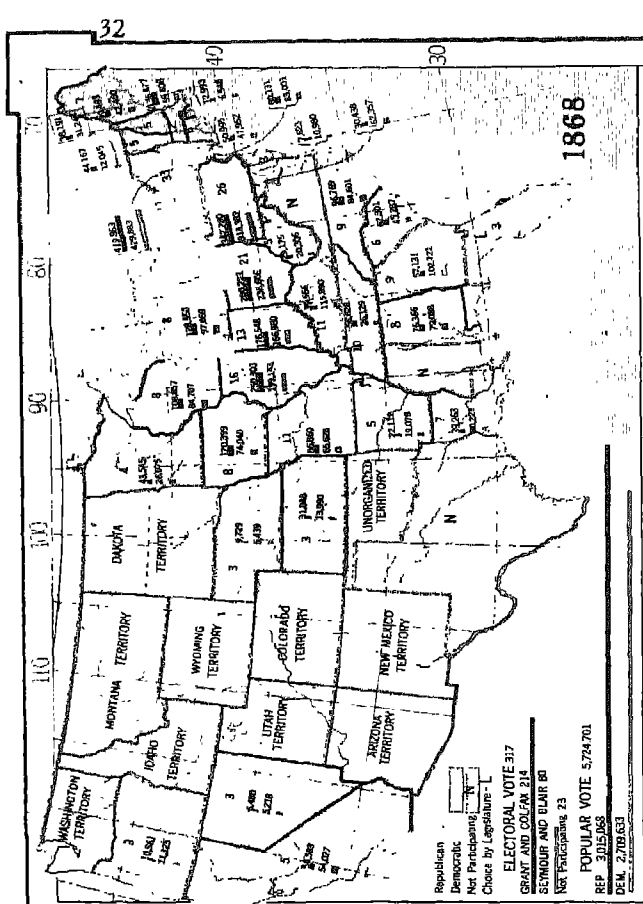
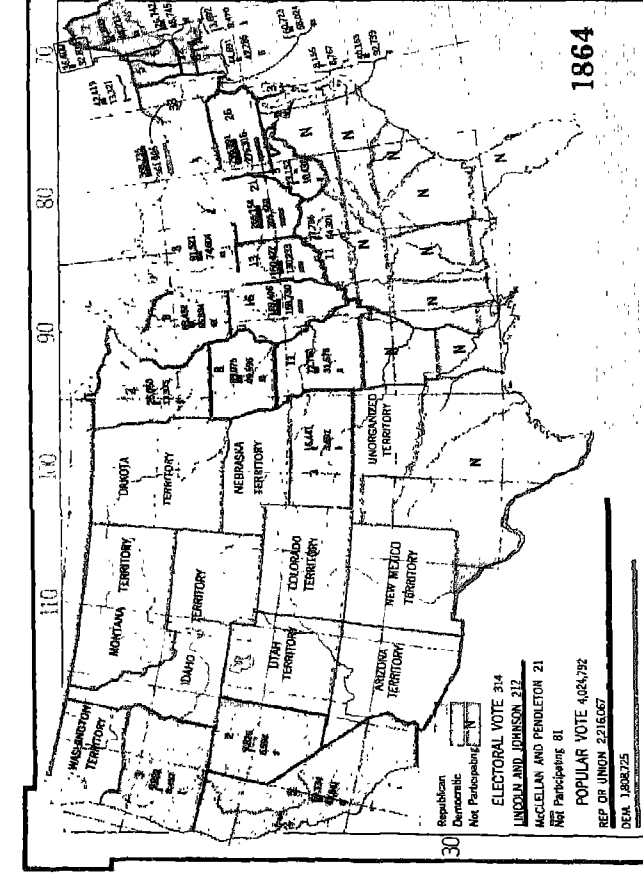


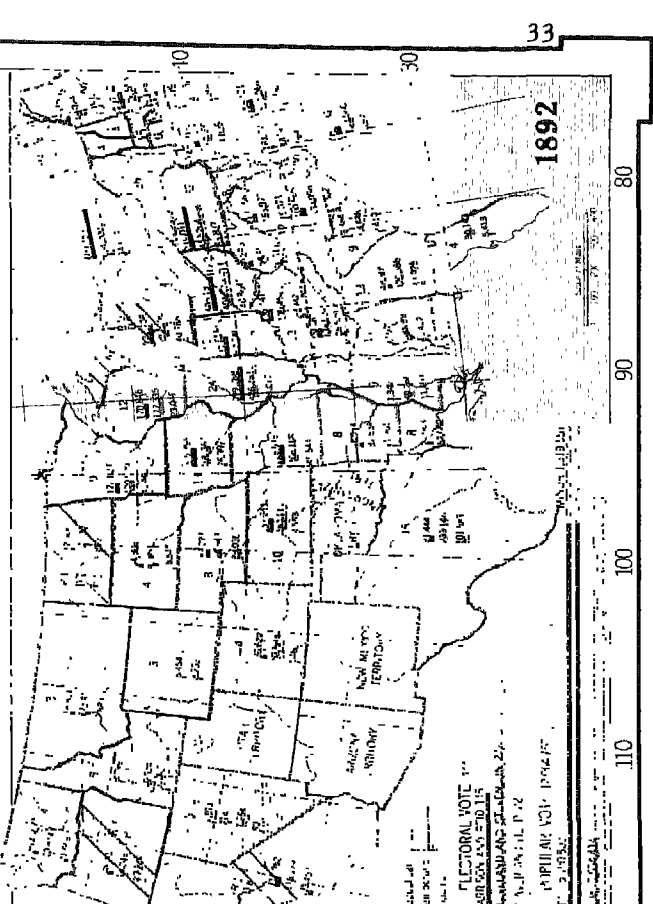
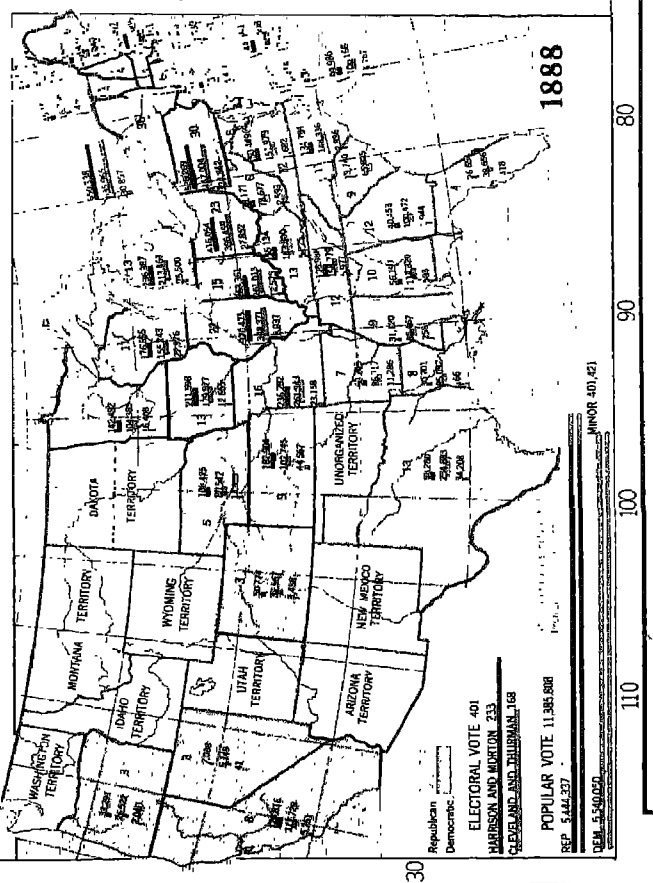
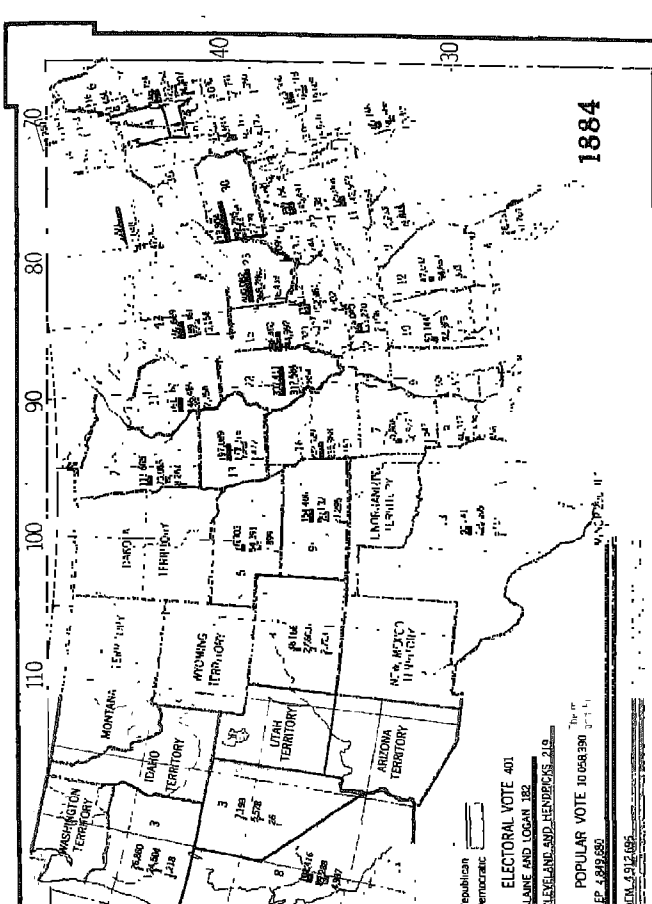
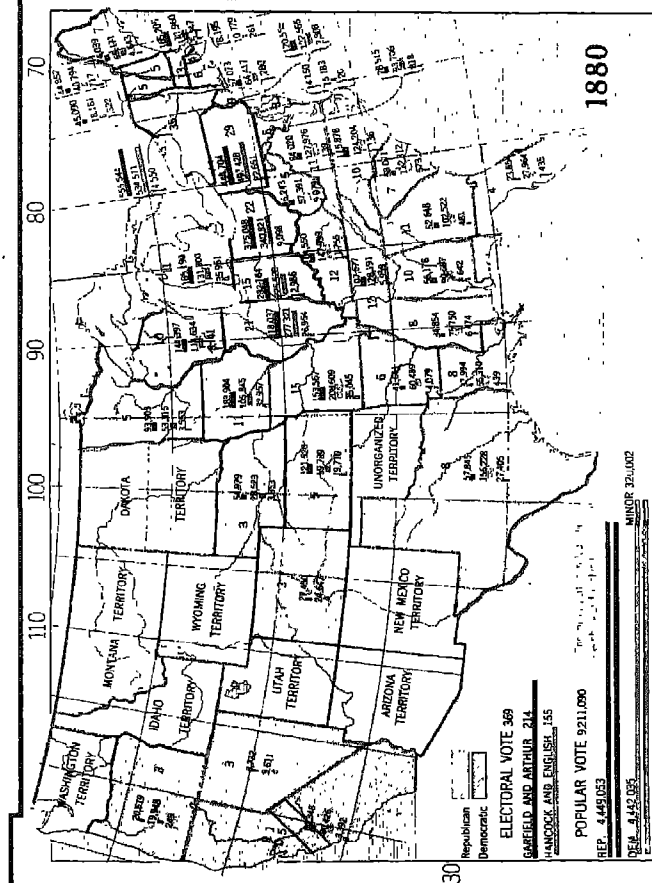


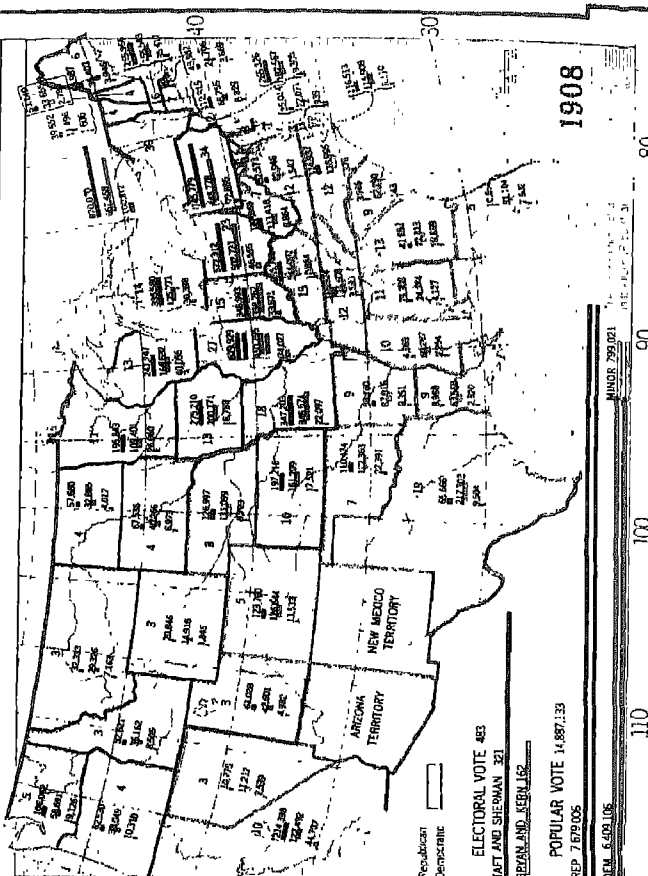
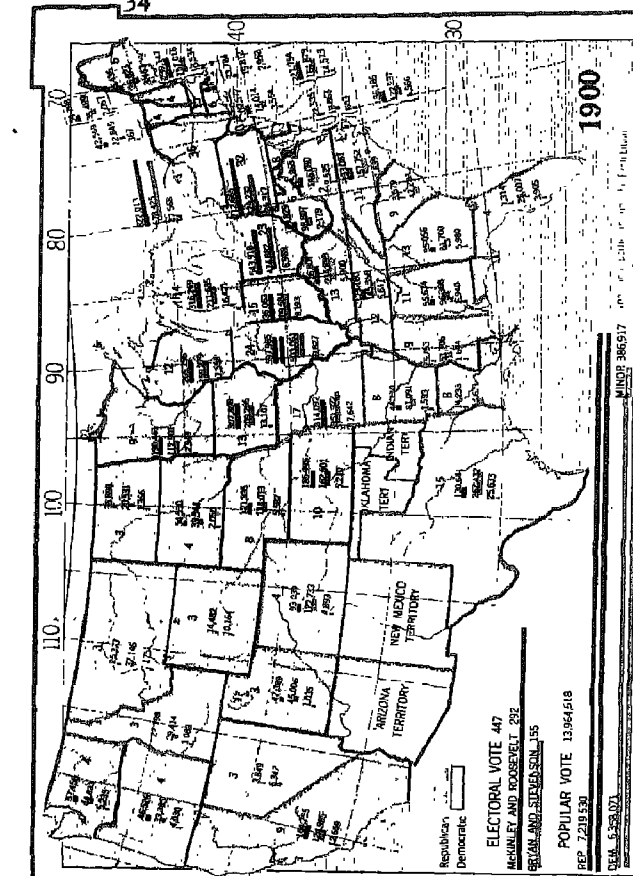
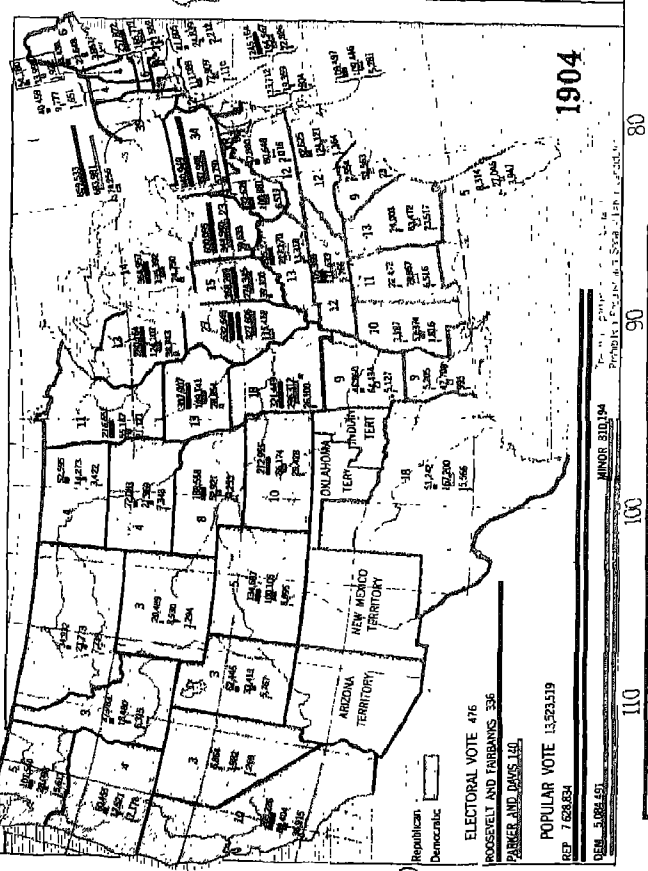
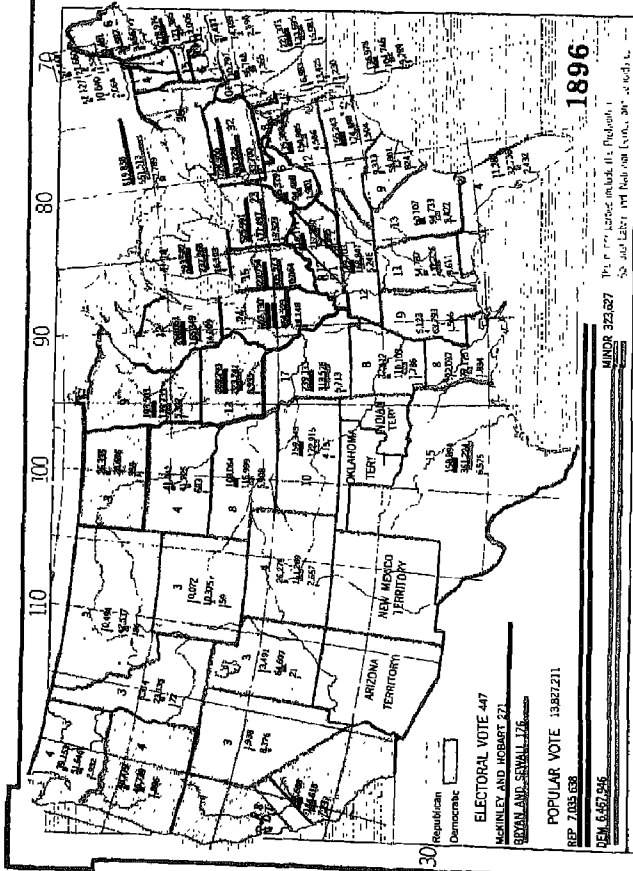


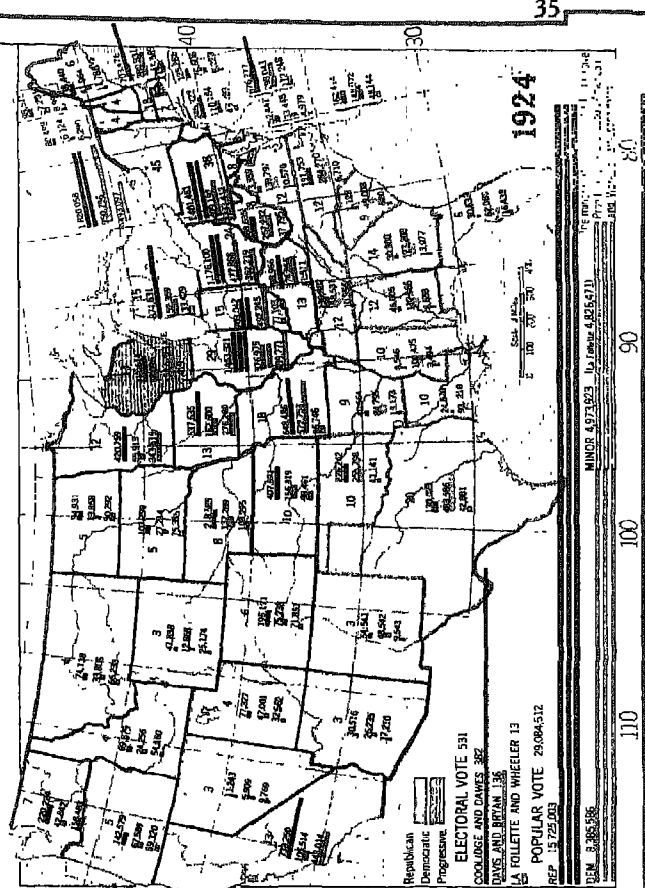
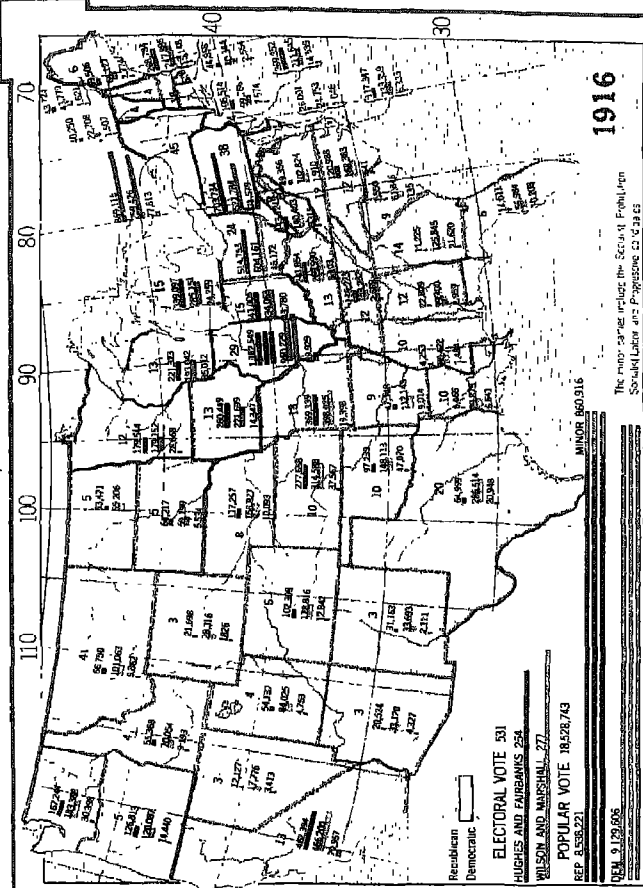
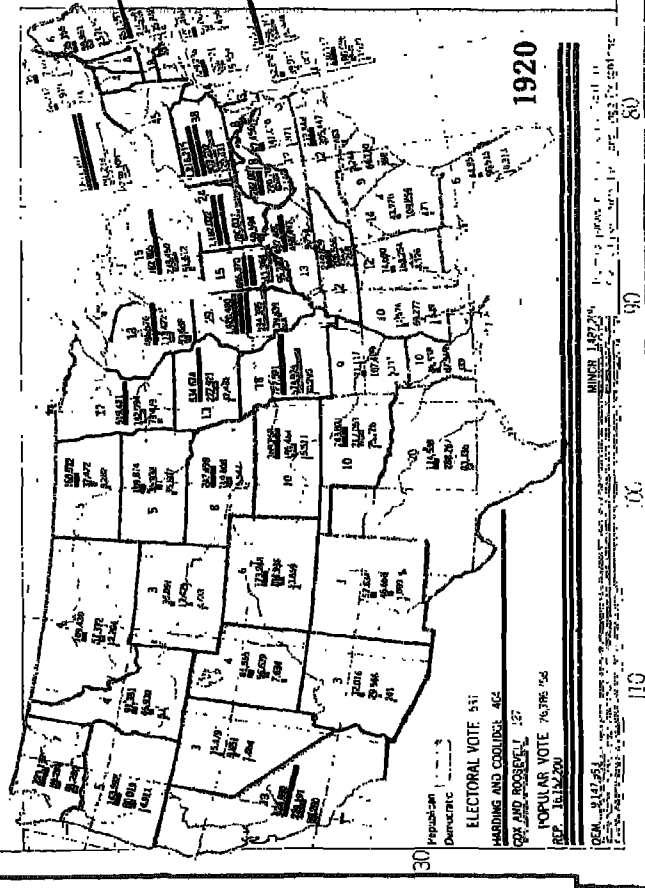
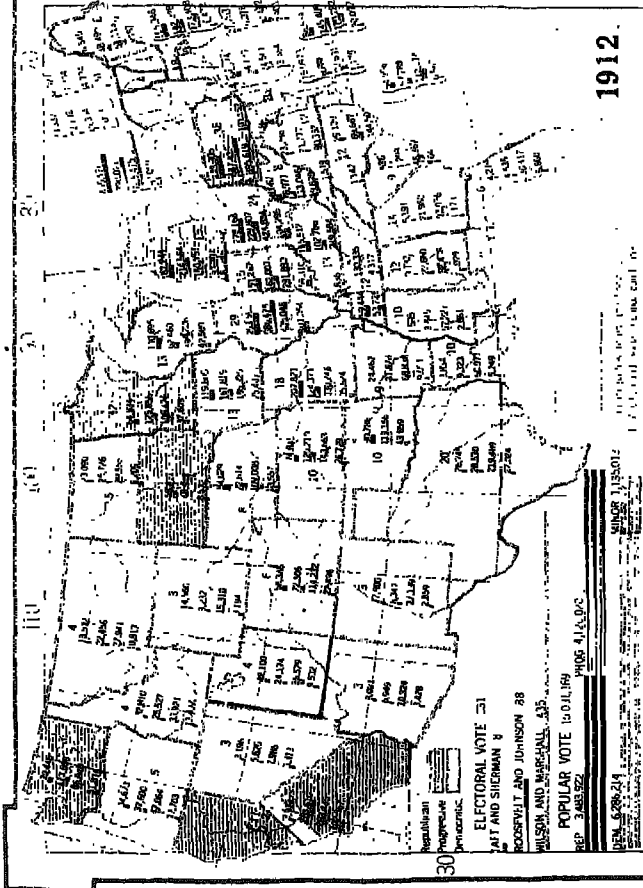


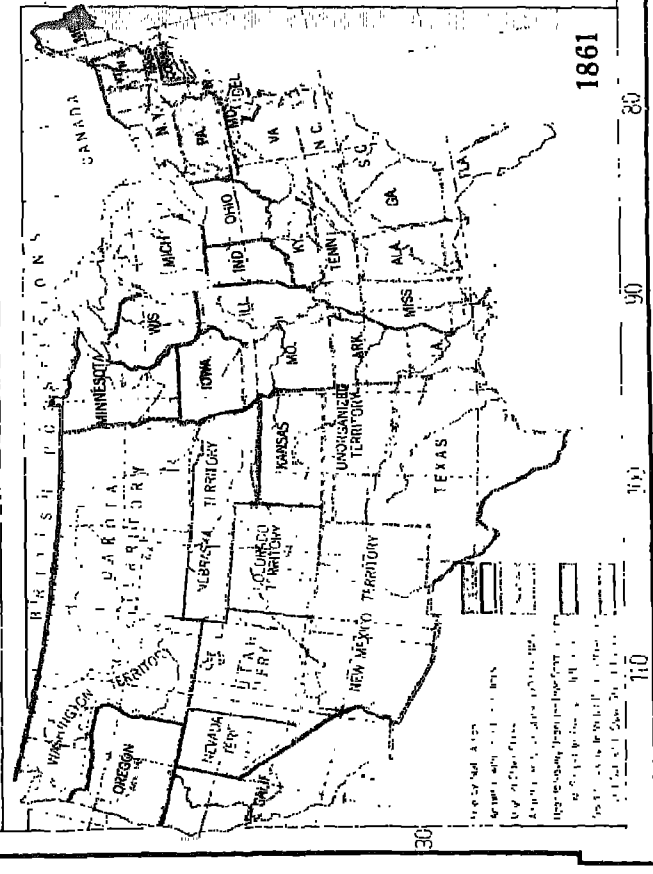
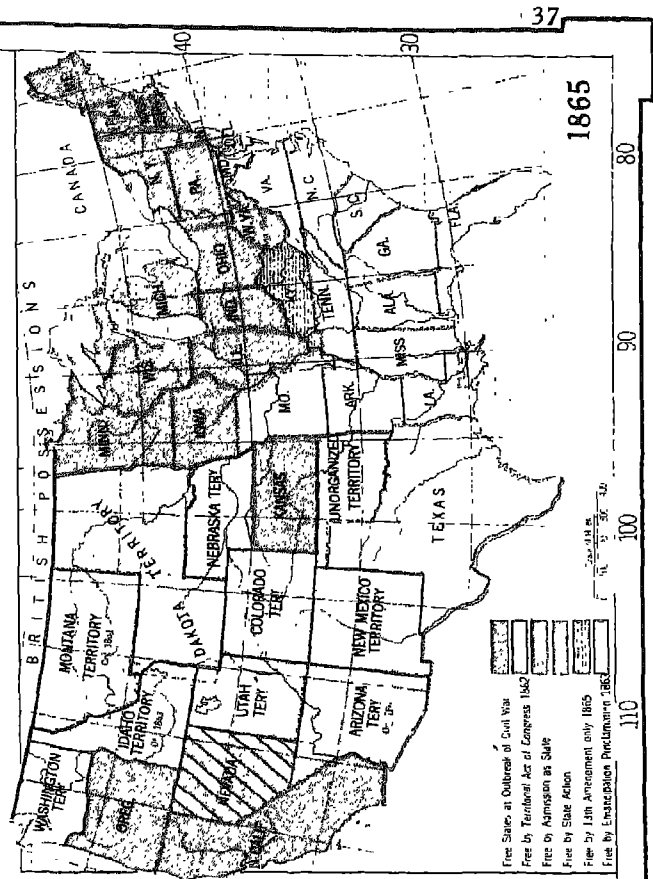
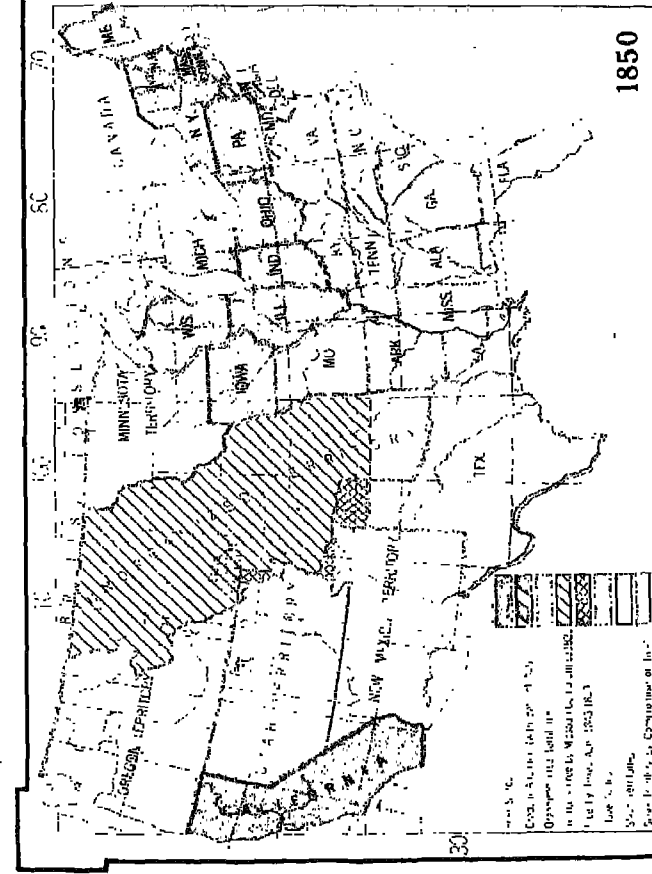
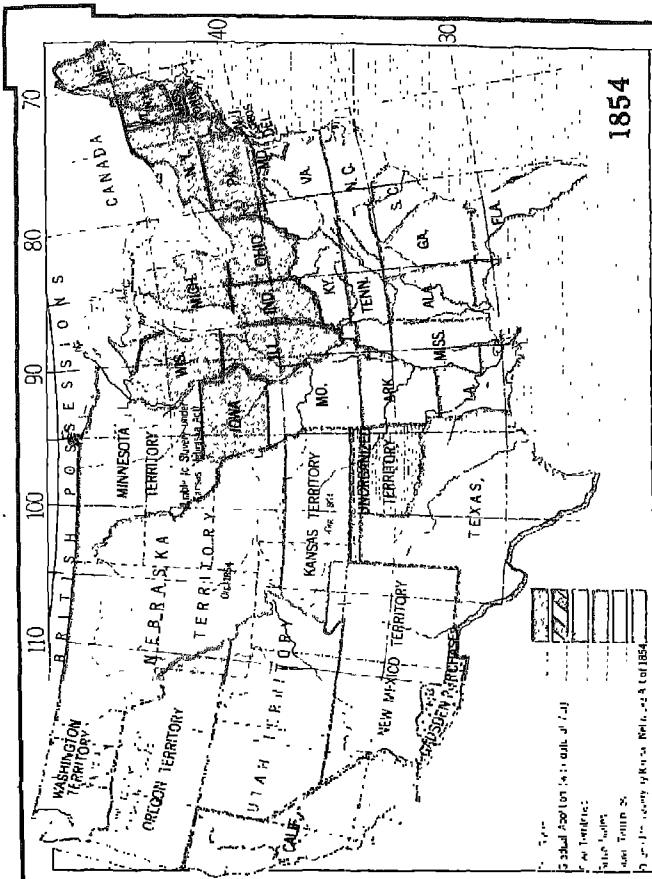


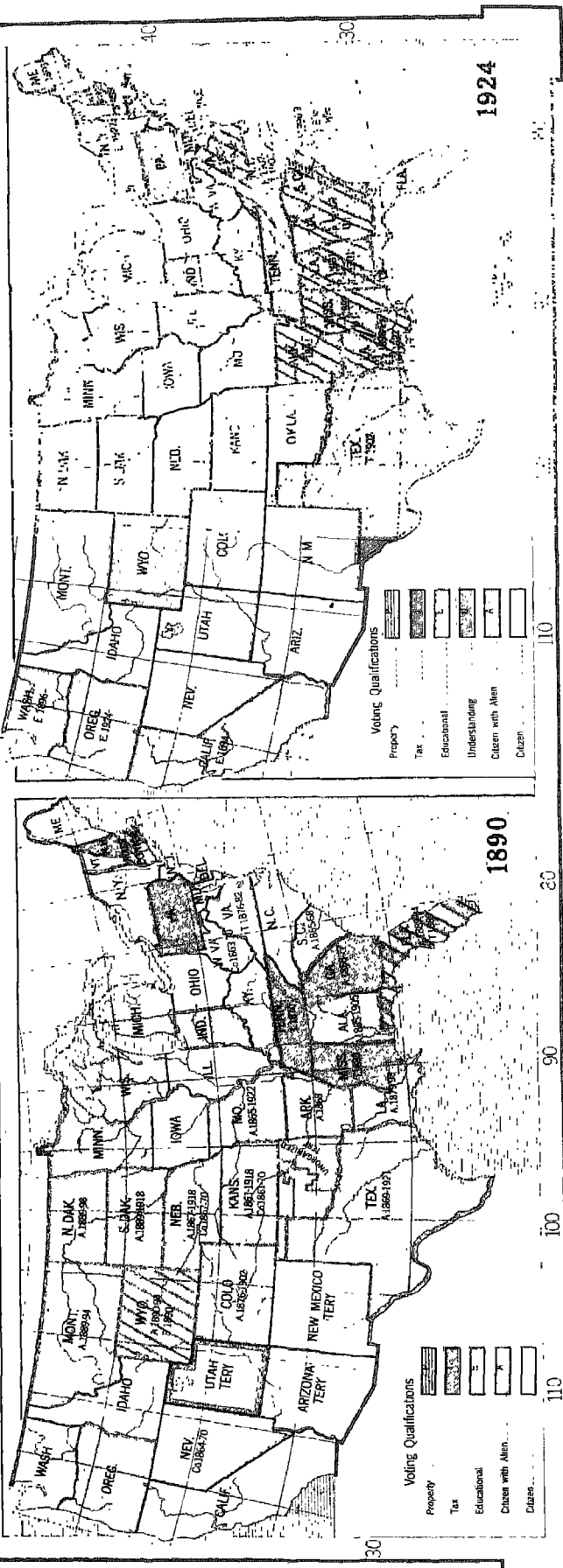
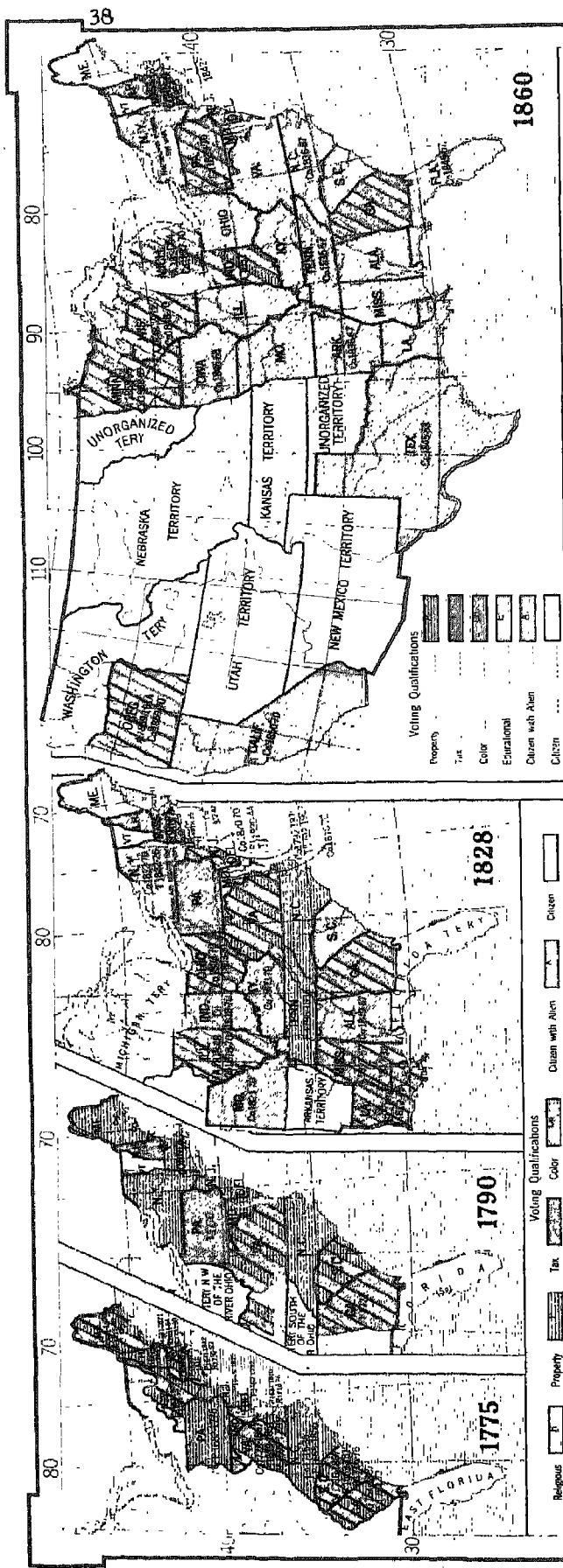


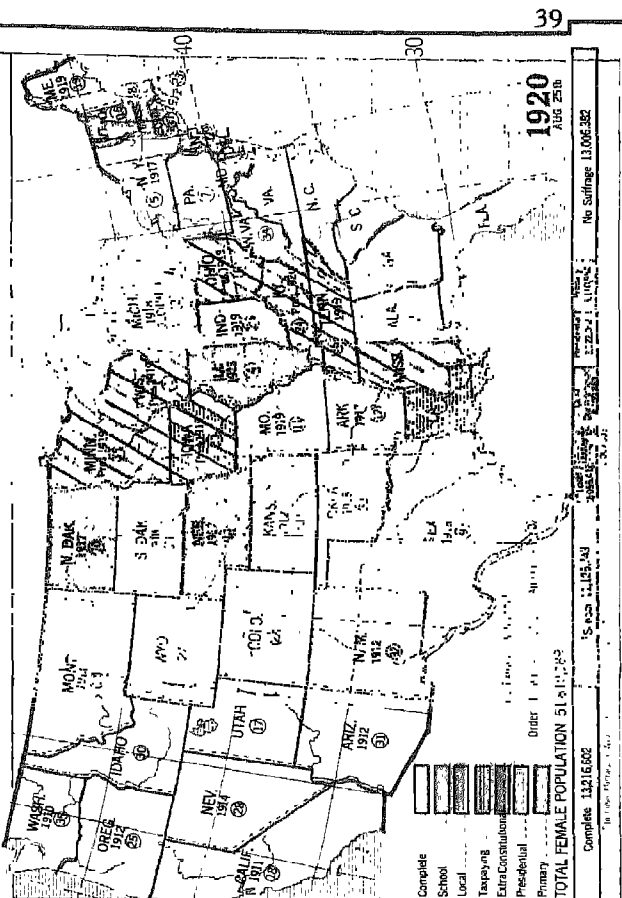
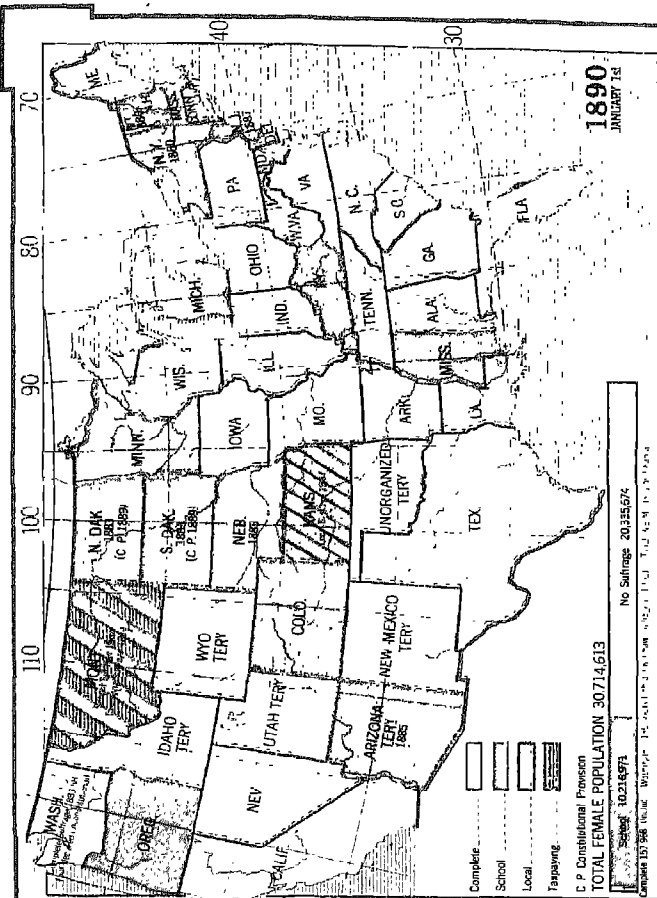
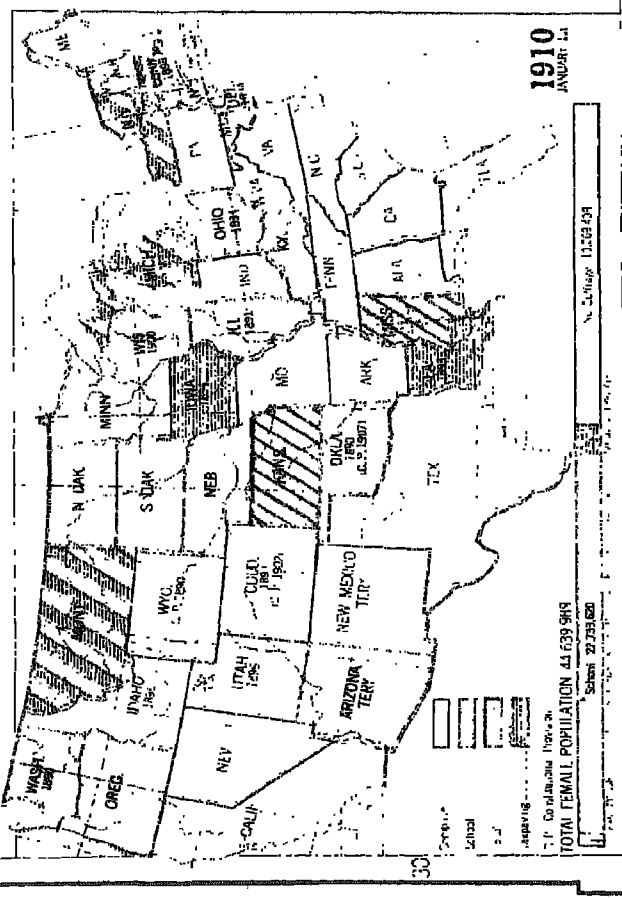
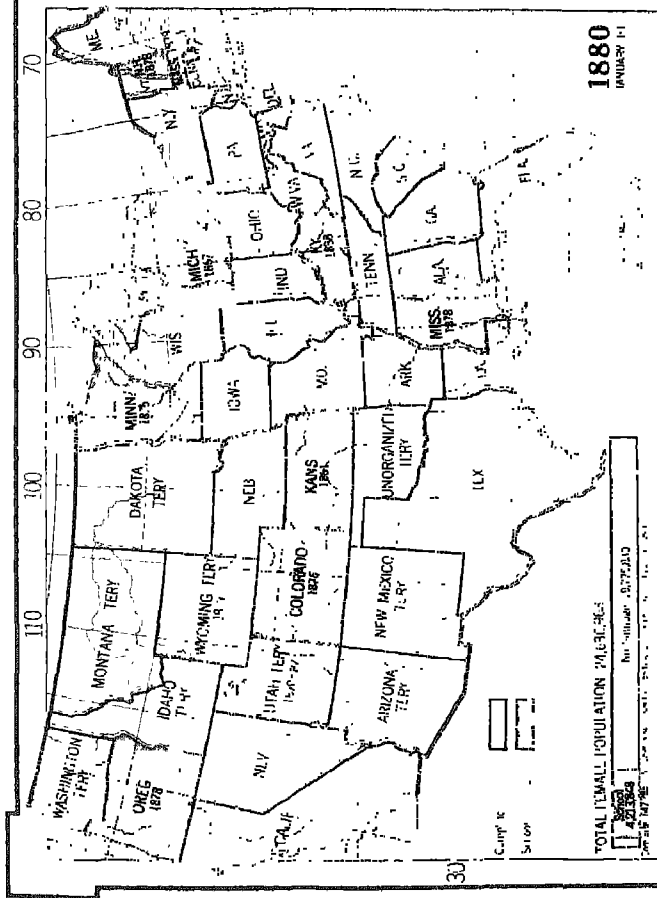




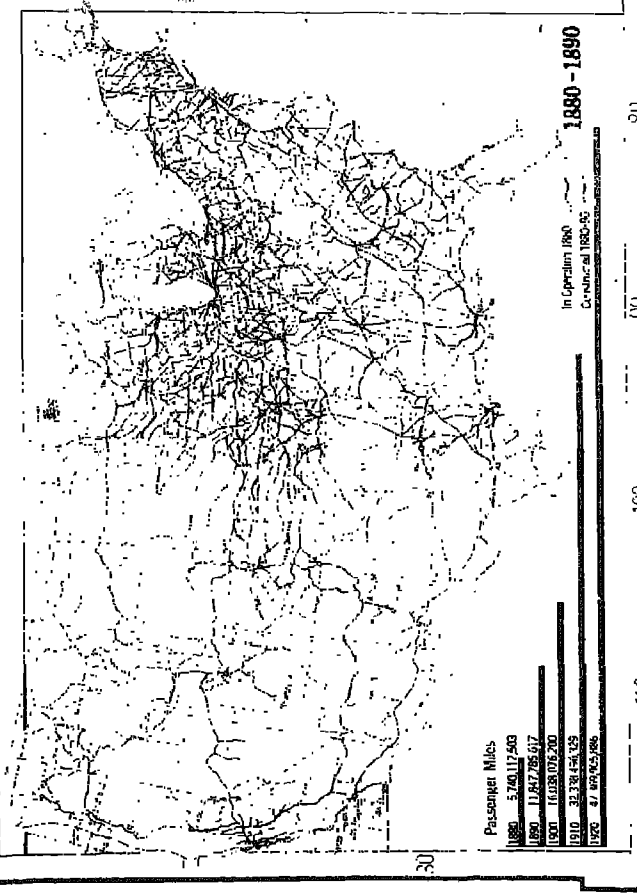
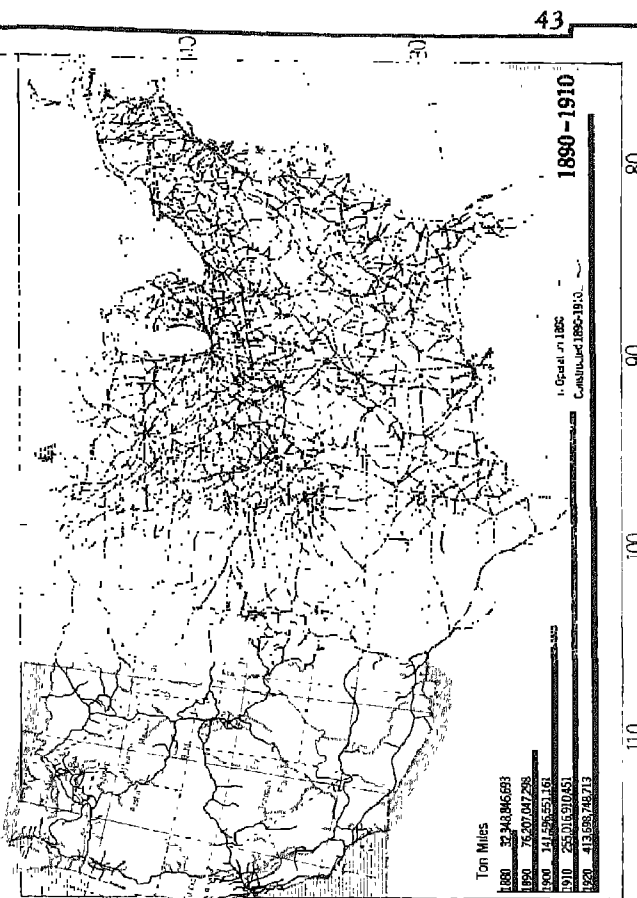
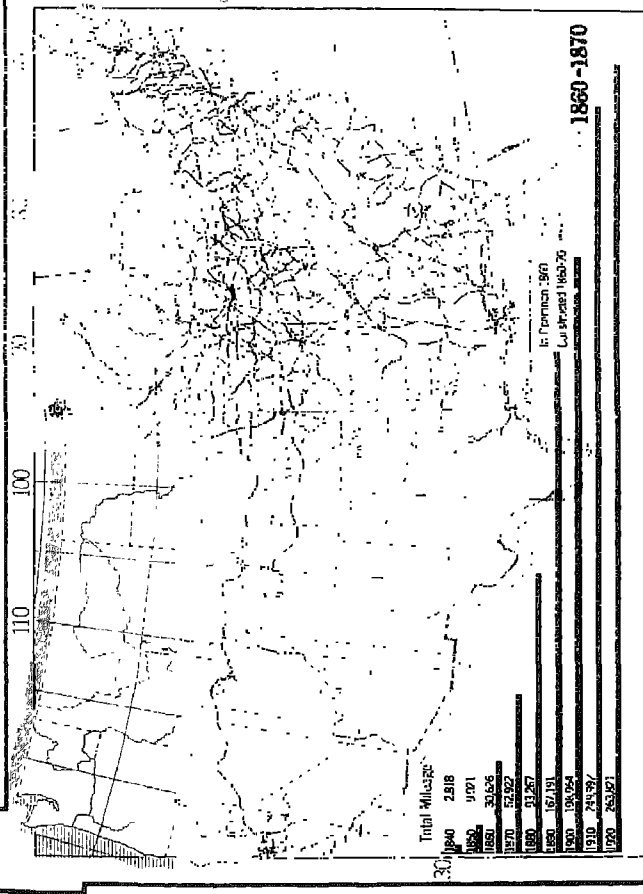
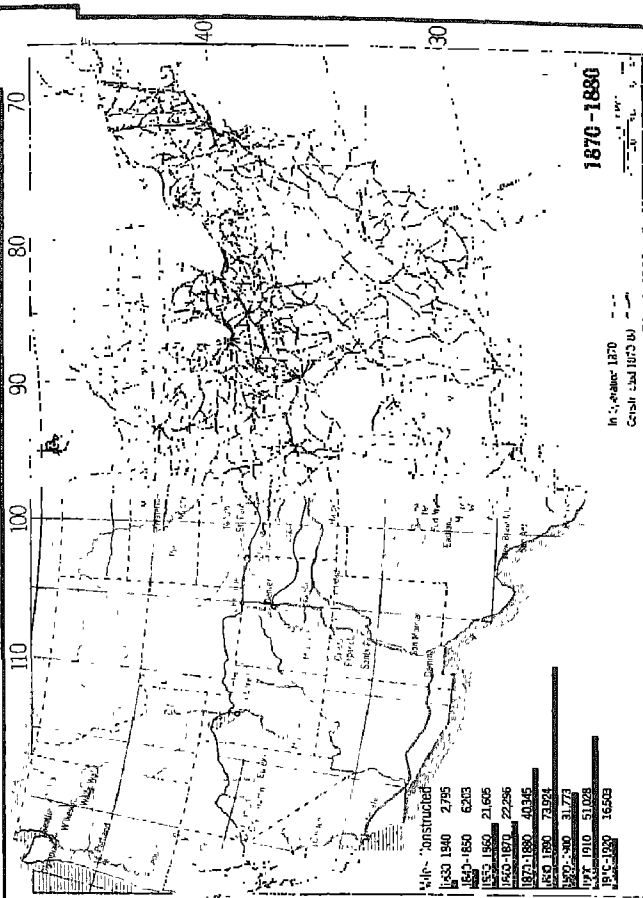


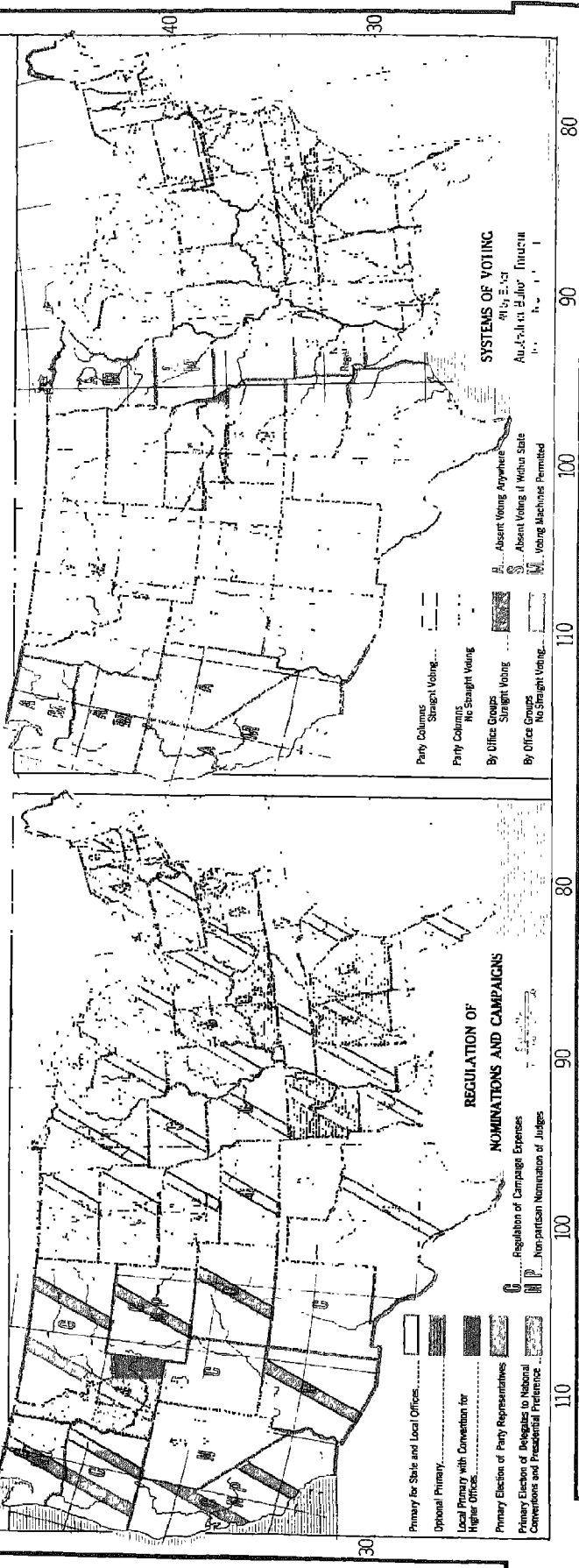
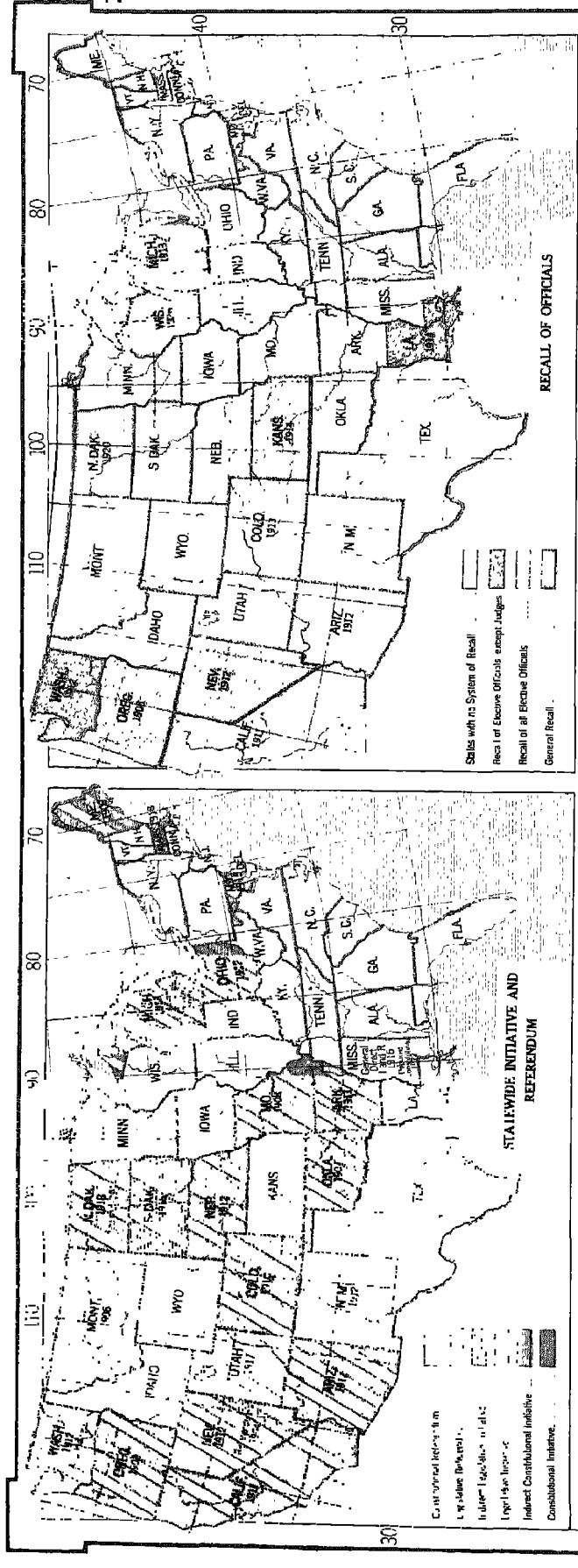






TRANSPORTATION AT VARIOUS PERIODS





THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

THE PEOPLE
 Voters etc.
 Aliens Minors etc.
 Active Voters Stay at Homes
 The Majority (or Plurality) of Votes Cast

FEDERAL CONSTITUTION
 Growth by
 Process of Amendment and Interpretation

TRADITION
 Common Law
 Precedent

CONSTITUTIONAL LIMITATIONS
 Bill of Rights
 Specific Limitations
 Forms of Amendment

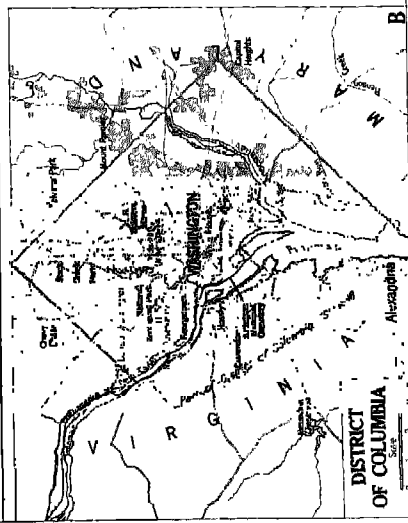
LEGISLATIVE (MAKES LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

CONGRESS		PRESIDENT		U.S. COURTS	
House of Representatives		Senate		Powers	
Organization	Powers	Organization	Powers	Holding Laws	Unconstitutional
Speaker	Members and Discipline	Vice President	Members and Discipline	Constructing	Treaties
Other Officers	President's Problem	President	President's Problem	Constructing	Statutes
Employees	Discussion	Other Officers	Discussion	Constructing	Statutes
Committee on Rules	Investigation and Reports	Employees	Investigation and Reports	Constructing	Statutes
Standing Committees	Impeaching Resolutions	Standing Committees	Impeaching Resolutions	Constructing	Statutes
Chairmen	Resolutions	Chairmen	Resolutions	Constructing	Statutes
	Bills		Bills	Constructing	Statutes
	Joint Committees		Joint Committees	Constructing	Statutes
	Passing Acts and Joint Resolutions		Passing Acts and Joint Resolutions	Constructing	Statutes

"THE LAW OF THE LAND"

Purpose
 Preamble of Constitution
 Supreme Law Clause
 Internal Organization
 Federal Elections - Appointment
 Executive Officers in Congress
 Journal of Proceedings - Impeachment
Citizenship
 Immigration - Naturalization
 Interstate Citizenship
Territorial
 Acquisition of Territory - Admitting States
 District of Columbia Territories Federal Sites
 Philippines - Unorganized Areas
 High Seas - Guaranty to States
Military
 Declaring War - Army - Navy
 Militia
Finance
 Federal Finance - Borrowing
 Taxation - Income Taxes
Commerce
 Interstate and Foreign Commerce
 Post Office - Money - Bankruptcy
 Weights and Measures - Patents
 Copyright - Currency - Census - Prohibition
Amendments
 Submitting Constitutional Amendments
Implied Powers
 Necessary and Proper Laws
 National Banks and Currency
 Chartering Corporations
 Protective Tariffs - Aids to Industry etc.



EXECUTIVE (APPLIES LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

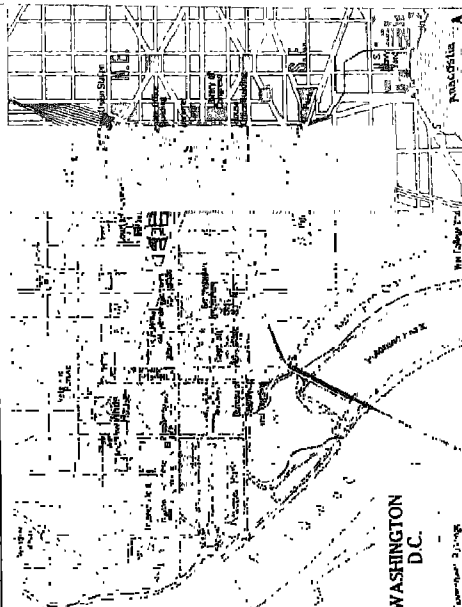
PRESIDENT - VICE-PRESIDENT		Powers	
Cabinet		Legislative	
Advice to President	Division of President	Calling Congress	Public Statements
Duties prescribed by Law		Messages to Congress	Nominations
		Signing Bills	Senate Ratification
		Veto Power	Military Command
		Budget	Execution of Laws
		Negotiation of Treaties	Pardon

State
 Diplomatic
 Consular
Treasury
 Finance
War
 Military Affairs
Justice
 Prosecution - Advice
 Immigration - Naturalization
Navy
 Naval Affairs
Post Office
 Postal Affairs
Interior
 Lands - Indians - Scientific
 Reclamation etc.
Agriculture
 Animal and Plant Industry
 Farm Management
 Forest Service etc.
Commerce
 Commerce
 Customs
 Vessels
 Railroads
 Prisons etc.
Labor
 Civil Employees
 Civil Service System

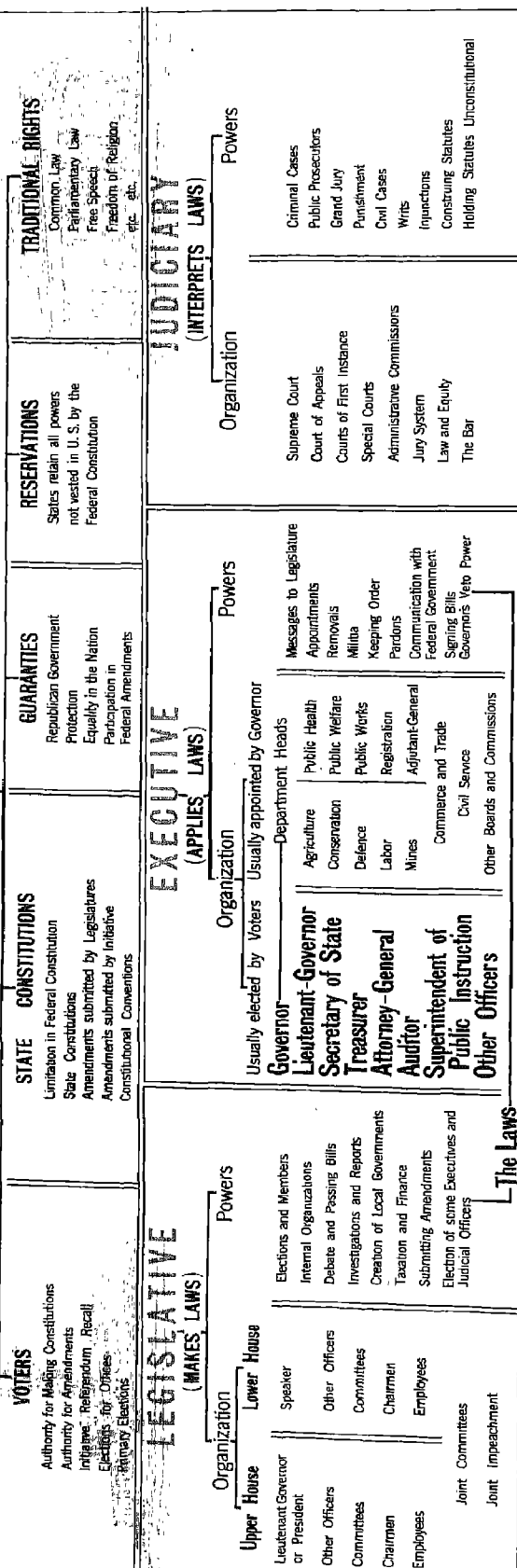
JUDICIAL (INTERPRETS LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

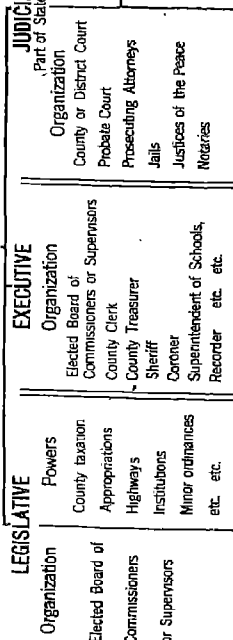
Regular Courts		Other Tribunals		Powers	
Supreme Court		Administrative Commissions		Direct	
Supreme Court	Decision of Cases	Administrative Commissions	Decision of Cases	Direct	Indirect
Circuit Court of Appeals	Issuance of Writs	Department of Rulings	Issuance of Writs	Direct	Indirect
District Courts	Injunction	Courts Marshal	Injunction	Direct	Indirect
	Contempt	Consular Impachment	Contempt	Direct	Indirect
	Interstate Cases	Civil Employees	Interstate Cases	Direct	Indirect



STATE GOVERNMENT SOURCE OF AUTHORITY



COUNTY GOVERNMENT VOTERS

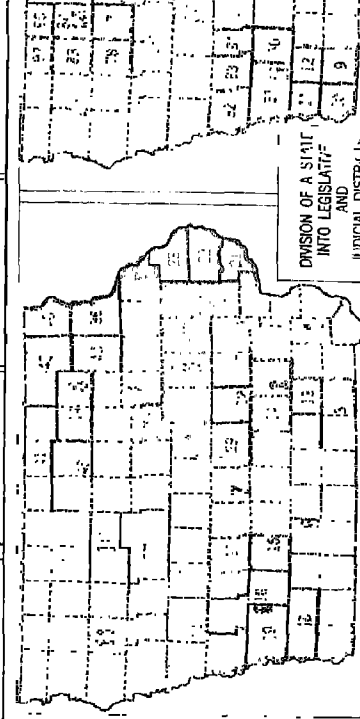
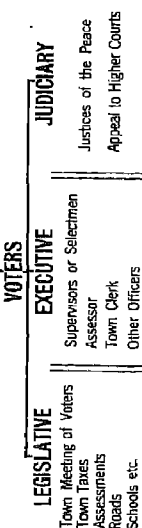


Property Tax 16 Per Cent Business and License 36% Inheritance 8% Income 3% All other 8%	Education 30 Per Cent Public Institutions 19% General Government 8% Prisoners 6% Health and Sanitation 5% Natural Resources 5% All other 18%
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STATE INCOME

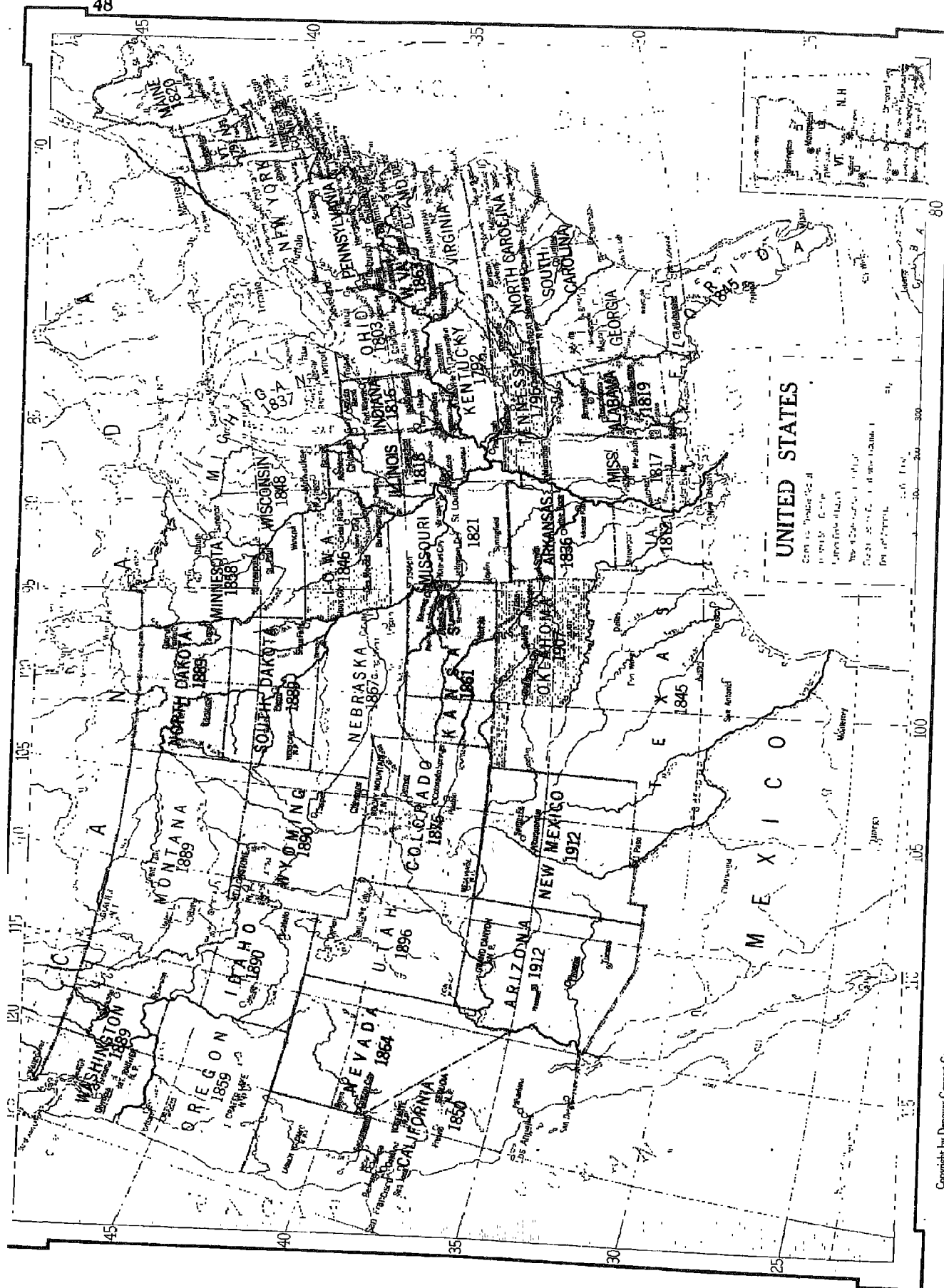
STATE OUTGO

TOWN OR TOWNSHIP GOVERNMENT VOTERS



CITIES AND INCORPORATED VILLAGES

Creation
 Services for the State
 Responsibility to the State
 (See also Chart 4.47 on City Government.)



New Jersey, and New York. In 1819 slavery was ended or in process of ending in all the states north of Mason and Dixon's line, running east and west between Maryland and Pennsylvania. In all the states south of that line Negro slavery continued to exist.

By 1800 all the original states had laws forbidding the foreign slave trade, but South Carolina had repealed her act before 1808, when a general prohibition by Congress went into operation. The dates in all the maps except for the first, indicate the status of slavery at the end of the year; the geographic boundaries have been made up to agree with this date. The boundaries of each colony or state therefore include territory which at the date of the map was a part of the geographic units whose status as to slavery is described. The dates of gradual emancipation are dates of the passage of the act. This did not mean that gradual emancipation began at once. Rather, it meant the establishment of a status of freedom subject to such temporary exceptions as might be thought necessary, such as giving the master the labor of children until they reached maturity.

BALANCING FREE AND SLAVE STATES. Of the thirteen original colonies, those free by 1820 were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey (seven in all), to which should be added Vermont admitted in 1791 and Maine set off as a state in 1820. In addition there were the new states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, making twelve states which did not permit slavery in 1821. To the original six southern slave states, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia were added the new states of Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Missouri, making twelve states in which Negro slavery was legal. This equality in the number of free and slave states was not an accident; it meant that in 1821 each of the rival groups had twenty-four senators in Congress. In fact, great pains were taken to offset every new free state by a corresponding slave state. Thus—Ohio, 1803, and Louisiana, 1812; Indiana, 1816, and Mississippi, 1817; Illinois, 1818, and Alabama, 1819; Maine, 1820, and Missouri, 1821.

SLAVERY IN 1776. The Declaration of Independence would seem to be incompatible with slavery, but it was considered to apply only to men who were free by the law of their state. A few days before the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, in the territory which was later recognized by England as belonging to the United States, not a square foot of ground was exempt from slavery. Likewise, in all the territory outside of the colonial boundaries, as recognized in 1776, slavery of Indians by Indians and white people, and of white people and Negroes by Indians, was legal.

SLAVERY IN 1787. In 1787 this situation was changed. The New England states and Pennsylvania had adopted laws under which no new slavery could be created. In three states—Vermont, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts—slavery was ended. Likewise, the Ordinance of 1787 prohibited slavery within the Northwest Territory. In the remaining states, including New York and New Jersey, no steps had been taken to abolish slavery. Also in the vast region west of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia, Indian and Negro slavery was unrestricted by law.

SLAVERY IN 1800. By 1800 New York had begun a gradual emancipation; however it was not carried out for more than twenty years. Also, the new Northwest Territory was placed under perpetual prohibition by the Ordinance of 1787. On the other hand the new states of Kentucky and Tennessee, the latter formed from the territory south of the Ohio River, had recognized slavery; while in 1789 Mississippi had been organized as a territory without prohibition of slavery.

SLAVERY IN 1821. By the year 1821 the process of emancipation north of Mason and Dixon's line was completed, a gradual emancipation act having been passed in New Jersey in 1805. Three states by this time had been organized out of the Northwest Territory, each of them prohibiting slavery in its state constitution in addition to the general prohibition of 1787. The Territory of Michigan, of course, was also under this prohibition. Every state south of Pennsylvania and the Ohio River was slave holding and so remained until the Civil War.

The annexation of the Louisiana Territory in 1803 brought into the Union a region in which there was no interference with the holding of slaves. The southernmost portion of this territory entered the Union in 1812 as the slave state of Louisiana. From 1818 to 1821 there was a struggle over the question of slavery in the remaining portion of the territory. The Missouri Compromise of 1820 provided for the admission of Missouri as a slave state with the straight western boundary shown on the map, and otherwise prohibited slavery in all parts of the Louisiana Purchase north of the line 36° 30'.

By these transactions, down to 1821, the Union was clearly and definitely divided into two regions of states and territories. In the South Negro slavery was established by law and custom. In the North slavery was prohibited or fast becoming extinct under "gradual emancipation" laws. The division line ran from the Delaware River along the southern and western boundary of Pennsylvania to the Ohio River; down the Ohio to the Mississippi; northwest, west, and south around Missouri; thence along the line of 36° 30' to the western boundary of the Louisiana Purchase.

SLAVERY IN 1849. This sharp division between free and slave states and territory continued decade after decade. The Oregon region, reached by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1805, doubtless knew Indian slavery; but no Negro slaves appear to have been introduced and Congress forbade it by the territorial act under which Oregon was organized in 1848. Hence, in 1849 the line between free and slave regions in the United States was essentially as it had been in 1821.

The process described in connection with the map of 1821 for balancing free and slave states continued thirty years longer—Arkansas, 1836, and Michigan, 1837; Florida, 1845, and Texas, 1845, against Iowa, 1846, and Wisconsin, 1848. The apparently insoluble problem of slavery was further aggravated by the Mexican Cession of 1848. The great regions called New Mexico and California were on the face of them free, because slavery had been prohibited by Mexican

law. It could not be expected, however, that the South would ever accept exclusion of slave-holding planters from the whole of the new annexations.

Without protest from the North the boundaries between free and slave owning territory laid down in the Missouri Compromise of 1820 were a little altered in 1836 by Act of Congress. The triangle between the upper western boundary of Missouri and the Missouri River was in that year taken out of the unorganized territory and added to the slave-holding area of Missouri.

MAP A37. SLAVERY 1850-1865

In these four maps we can trace the course by which, from a Union made up of 15 slave and 15 free states and with about half of the territories closed and the other half open to slavery, we come to the point when every state and every territory is absolutely free under the Constitution of the United States. These eventful fifteen years were filled with conflicts between the rival sections. They fought for power and influence in Congress and, more important, for occupation of western territory until ready to be carved into new states. There was a steady increase in the ranks of those who sought the total extinction of the legal right to hold slaves, so that the United States should not be out of line with most of the civilized powers of the world. This struggle led to the most lively contests in Congress, in nominating conventions, in the public press, and in literature. Except during the period of the Revolution, nothing like it had ever been known in the United States. It finally culminated in a terrible civil war which decided whether slavery was to be perpetuated or destroyed.

SLAVERY IN 1850. The Compromise Act of 1850 was an effort to secure an act of Congress which would determine the future of the far-western territories with respect to slavery. With the exception of the region south of the Ohio River and the areas which became the states of Florida, Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas (also that part of the present state of Oklahoma), the United States government up to 1850 sooner or later prohibited slavery in all the new territory that came into its possession. It was prohibited in the Northwest Territory by the Ordinance of 1787, in the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30' by the Missouri Compromise, and in the Oregon Country by the act of Congress organizing the territory.

A new question arose when New Mexico and California were annexed. The solid block of southern slave states, together with Texas, lay in a belt which if prolonged westward would include great parts of New Mexico and California; hence there was a great pressure to make California slave-holding in spite of the fact that the entire Mexican Cession had been made permanently free according to Mexican law. The discovery of gold in 1848 attracted into California thousands of free men who had no intention of permitting the owners of slaves to put those slaves into competition with the single diggers and miners. In 1849 a state constitution prohibiting slavery was drawn up, and on that basis California was admitted into the Union in 1850.

This left only the region between Texas and California open to the possible extension of slavery.

The great Compromise Act of 1850 did not disturb or mention the three previous acts of Congress prohibiting slavery in the Northwest Territory, the Louisiana Purchase, and the Oregon Country. What Congress actually did was to divide the region between Texas and California into the two territories of Utah, and New Mexico. They were created in such a way that owners of slaves might take their slaves into either of these territories, leaving the Supreme Court of the United States to decide whether such slavery was legal.

SLAVERY IN 1854. The whole country was taken by surprise when Senator Douglas in 1854, by the weight of his immense force and skill as a debater and his position as the leading western Democrat, forced thru Congress the Kansas-Nebraska Act. The purport of that act was to prevent Congress from prohibiting slavery in any territory, and to free both sections of the country from obligations of past agreements. In light of this new act the Missouri Compromise Act of 1820 was set aside, and the principle of the Compromise of 1850 was extended to the older regions. If that was good law for New Mexico or Kansas it was equally valid against the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and to the act creating the Oregon Territory of 1848. So far as the Louisiana Purchase was concerned, the Kansas-Nebraska Act provided for the division of the part north of 36° 30' into Nebraska Territory and Kansas Territory. Since Kansas was immediately west of Missouri, a slave state, the presumption was that it would become slave-holding. The ultimate effect of the act was to create in Kansas a fighting ground between the North and South, since settlers came in from both sections. The rift between the two sections was further deepened by the Dred Scott decision, 1857. In this decision the Supreme Court of the United States decided that neither Congress nor the voters in a territory could prohibit slavery.

SLAVERY IN 1861. In the next seven years several changes occurred. Minnesota and Oregon were admitted to the Union with free constitutions. Kansas, after a lively struggle between lawless pro-slavery men and some lawless anti-slavery men, including the famous John Brown, was admitted to the Union as a free state shortly before the Civil War began. At the same time no territory was ready to be admitted as part of the pro-slavery group of states to balance California, Oregon, Minnesota, and Kansas. Of the thirty-four states in the Union on March 4, 1861, nineteen were free and fifteen were slave-holding. This loss of balance of power in Congress, preserved in the Senate for forty years, was one of the reasons for the formation of the Confederacy. This movement took eleven states out of the Union.

SLAVERY IN 1865. After the Civil War, slavery ceased to exist anywhere within the limits of the United States. The process of abolishing slavery began with acts of Congress in 1862 prohibiting slavery in the District of Columbia and in the territories, an action straight in the teeth of the Dred Scott decision. As a result, all the territory not

included in states between the Missouri River and the Pacific was free from slavery, including the Unorganized Territory (now the state of Oklahoma). Whether this was beyond the power of Congress is now immaterial because the Thirteenth Constitutional Amendment, duly ratified by three-fourths of the states in 1865, absolutely prohibited slavery anywhere in the United States or within its jurisdiction.

Before the climax had been reached several areas had been cleared of slavery by direct state action. Nevada and West Virginia (separated from Virginia) were admitted to the Union with free constitutions. Maryland, Missouri, and Tennessee took action for the emancipation of slaves thru their state governments. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 applied to all the states or sections of states within the Confederate lines at that date. That meant most of Virginia and Louisiana and nearly all of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas—ten states in all. Except for Texas, all of the former Confederate States had also, before the Thirteenth Amendment became effective, abolished slavery by state constitutional amendment. When the Thirteenth Amendment went into effect in 1865, the only two regions in the United States not already covered by some form of state or national action were Kentucky and Delaware. They were transferred to freedom by the Thirteenth Amendment.

MAP A38. MANHOOD SUFFRAGE

Students of American political and constitutional history are aware that colonial democracy was a very different thing from that form of democracy which came about as a result of the Revolution, and that it in turn was something far removed from the democracy of the Twentieth Century. Before the Revolution the suffrage was the privilege of not more than from one-fifth to one-third of the adult males. In the first portion of the Nineteenth Century serious property and tax qualifications reduced the eligibles in almost all of the states. Our present day idea of universal suffrage was not entirely realized until the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution went into effect in 1920. The nature and extent of the various limitations on suffrage are set forth in six sections of this map.

Manhood suffrage is understood in all of the maps; certain minor social and physical disqualifications are ignored. How far particular qualifications, such as property, tax, or religion, continued in force is shown. Citizen suffrage underlies the maps; the blocks of other colors are limitations on this, except in the case of "alien suffrage." Here aliens who had declared their intention of becoming citizens (the first step in naturalization) could also vote.

SUFFRAGE IN 1775. Every colony in 1775 had property, and at least five had religious qualifications. Negroes were distinctly excluded from the suffrage at that time only in Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia, the most of the free Negroes were shut out by the property qualifications. The dates here and later disclose the beginning and end of the various qualifications imposed on manhood suffrage; a single date signifies that the conditions continued thru 1924. The dates also indicate some temporary qualifications not shown in color.

SUFFRAGE IN 1790. After independence, religious qualifications disappeared and tax qualifications took the place of property in New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Georgia. Property requirement implies tax-paying, but the reverse is not necessarily true. Tax might mean merely a poll, or be much more liberal, even nominal, as a requirement. These two qualifications were sometimes alternative. Vermont was the only state at that time with universal adult male citizen suffrage.

SUFFRAGE IN 1828. By 1828 the number of states had reached twenty-four. The voting privilege was enjoyed by all male citizens of proper age only in Maine and Vermont. Color restrictions were in force in four northern states, New York, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Jersey, in all the western states, and in all the southern states except Tennessee and North Carolina. In the latter state there were said to be at that time a thousand respectable Negro voters. Except in Missouri, Alabama, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Maine, Vermont, South Carolina, Maryland, and New York, a tax or property qualifications were still required; but the country was heading toward a white manhood suffrage. In ten states there were no barriers against white male citizens and in eleven more, merely the tax qualifications. In this map first appears the alien stripe, in Illinois. Alien suffrage voting in early times is obscure. Several states gave the suffrage to "freemen" or "inhabitants" otherwise qualified. To what extent this was made to include aliens—e.g., in Pennsylvania, Delaware, New Jersey, New England, and Ohio—cannot be stated; but the balance of evidence seems to indicate that, except in Illinois, voting by aliens was not general in 1828.

SUFFRAGE IN 1860. By 1860 there was almost universal prohibition of Negro voting. On the other hand, the unrestricted right of the white male citizen to vote existed in all but seven states; in six of these there was a tax-property barrier, and in two an educational one. The great patch of white territory shows regions in which the only suffrage was for local officials, territorial legislatures, and delegates to Congress; also, two unorganized territories possessed no organized government at all.

SUFFRAGE IN 1890. An immense change in voting qualifications is seen between 1860 and 1890. Nearly all the Union was organized in states in 1890, and each state made its own laws on suffrage. One immensely significant change is the disappearance of the color bar, because the Fifteenth Amendment, added to the Constitution in 1865, states: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any state, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The tax qualification had extended to Mississippi, Tennessee, and Florida. In 1860 five northern states, including Oregon, were offering suffrage to aliens who had filed notice of their intention to be naturalized and thus become full citizens. In 1890 this provision was extended to six southern states (including Missouri) and to seven other far western states. For a short period this privilege had existed in Georgia and South Carolina.

SUFFRAGE IN 1924. In 1924 the country was divided into three major divisions of suffrage legislation, namely, citizen, educational, and tax. In all the western and Pacific Coast states, no tax-property qualifications existed, but in Wyoming, Washington, Oregon and California an educational qualification was in force. This form of restriction began in Connecticut and Massachusetts in the fifties and by 1924 had spread to every New England state except Vermont and Rhode Island. Educational qualifications had also been set up in Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, Delaware, and New York. Alien suffrage had disappeared in all states except Indiana and Arkansas. The border states of Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, and Oklahoma stood by the right of a citizen to vote without serious limitations, altho the Supreme Court had found it necessary to declare unconstitutional a restriction in the last. In most of the southern states there existed either property, tax, or educational qualifications. Several also had a peculiar provision commonly called the "understanding clause." All of these measures were intended to keep down the Negro vote but admit the poor uneducated citizens, the alternative qualifications being particularly designed for this purpose.

MAP A39. WOMAN SUFFRAGE

Thruout colonial times women had no share in elections in any colony except Maryland, where it was possible for a woman who had the necessary qualifications to vote. Otherwise, the laws appear to have been uniform in colonies and states restricting the suffrage to males. About 1850 there sprang up a movement in the United States for the general improvement of the legal status of women as to holding property, the right of descent, etc. This speedily led to a demand for suffrage on equal terms with men. The results of that movement in its early stages are registered on the map for 1880. In several directions it was recognized that women have a special interest and knowledge, particularly in educational matters and in local government. This gave rise to partial grants of suffrage, the course of which can be traced from decade to decade.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN 1880. This map furnishes a history of the first approaches to woman suffrage. The territory of Wyoming was created in 1868, and the next year the legislature, acting under the permission of Congress to fix its own terms of suffrage within certain limits, extended the suffrage to women. The same thing was done in 1870 in Utah Territory, first established in 1850; but in 1887 Congress, in the act against the Mormon Church, abolished the right. Beginning in 1838 in Kentucky, nine states in various parts of the Union accorded school suffrage before 1880. The situation in New Jersey demands special attention. From 1790 to 1807 the constitution and laws of that state did not make a distinction between men and women in the matter of suffrage, and the right was occasionally exercised.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN 1890. In the next ten years school suffrage was accorded to women in Vermont, New York, New Jersey, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Arizona. Complete suffrage was acquired by the

women of the Territory of Washington in 1883; however that action was held to be unconstitutional in 1888. Kansas women were given suffrage in local elections, carrying with it the right to be elected to local office. In Montana and several other states women tax payers were allowed to vote under certain conditions and on certain questions; but on January 1, 1890 the only area in the United States where women had full and equal suffrage privileges was in the Territory of Wyoming.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN 1910. In the next twenty years woman suffrage in one form or another was extended to twenty-nine of the forty-eight states and territories in the Union. Full suffrage was accorded in Wyoming, Idaho, Utah, and Colorado; school suffrage in many other states; local suffrage in Mississippi. The map shows clearly that the northeastern, western, and far western areas, except for California and Nevada, were far advanced in woman suffrage.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN 1920. Just before the Nineteenth Amendment went into force in 1920 the area of some form of woman suffrage covered nearly the whole Union, with the exception of the east coast states from Pennsylvania to Alabama, including West Virginia. Complete woman suffrage existed in New York and Michigan and extended from the Missouri River to the Pacific, except in North Dakota, Nebraska, and Texas, all of which had incomplete suffrage. School, local, and taxpaying suffrage had been adopted in most of the remaining states. Women in Illinois were allowed to vote for president in the election of 1916. In 1920 they would have had the presidential ballot in twelve states (in addition to the fifteen states which granted complete suffrage) even if the Nineteenth Amendment had not been in force. In three of the twelve states women were permitted to vote for extra-constitutional officers, in the remainder they hadn't yet gained the privilege of participating in the election of state officers. In Arkansas and Texas they received the primary vote, that right being of greater value in the South where the real contest is for the Democratic nominations. In New England, Maine and Rhode Island had given women the presidential suffrage; the other states did not go beyond school suffrage. Under the suffrage amendment of 1920 no voting distinction in national elections can be made between men and women by any state or by Congress.

MAP A40. LIQUOR REGULATIONS

Among the earliest legislation in the colonies were acts by the various assemblies and local governments regulating the liquor traffic. This legislation continued and accumulated all the way down to and thru the Revolution. From this series of maps it may be seen in what directions and at what time the restrictions came to be expressed.

The graphs at the foot of the four maps present more accurately than is possible thru a geographical map the total number of people living under the various systems of restriction. It will be noticed that in every state from 1893 to 1920 the liquor traffic was subject to some form of restriction. People under more than one kind of regulation are numbered under the severer form. Inhabitants of Indian reservations are numbered under statutory prohibition.

States are colored according to the severer restriction active on the date represented by the map; except for the last, the date is the beginning of the year. The last map is dated just before national prohibition went into operation. Lesser restrictions are shown by initials other than those of the particular color, where there was only partial (mainly rural) local option, that color is barred with the license color. A single bar shows where, before the period of the map, the state had had a severer restriction from which it had reverted. The dates on the maps show many conditions not indicated by the colors, conditions which had ceased before the period of the map, or existed side by side with the colored restriction. No license dates are given; these go back in all cases to the earliest times in each state or territory.

The principle of the license system is that no one can legally sell liquor without a public license for which a fee, often a very large one, may be charged. Special prohibition stands for local acts which forbade the sale of liquor within certain prescribed limits. Local option means that localities—districts, towns, cities, even portions of municipalities—of the state could vote either to allow or to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquor for a year or some other legal period. Another form, more popular in the earlier days, was brought into action by a majority petition (L. O. P.) without formal balloting. County option left the question of prohibition up to the counties. Rural prohibition prohibited the sale of liquor in portions of the state outside the special organizations—towns and cities. Statutory or constitutional prohibition means state-wide abolition of the sale of liquor by statute or constitutional provision.

LIQUOR REGULATION IN 1893. Without trying to go into detail, the first map shows how far the process had gone in 1893. The old fashioned license method prevailed in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Indiana, Illinois, and most of the far western, and Pacific states. Special prohibition was, with license, the only restriction in Maryland, West Virginia, and Alabama. Local option could exist side by side with license for those parts of the state not voting "dry" in the local option, or where the option was only partial. The system existed in whole or part in nine states in 1893, and had had wider application.

County option was the system in a number of the states, particularly among the southern states. Rural prohibition was confined to three of the southern states, two of which had local or county option also. The straight-out prohibition states in 1893 were seven in all, three of the New England states, plus Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Kansas. Inasmuch as the United States government prohibited the sale of liquor on Indian reservations, considerable areas in the Northwest and Far West were prohibition territory. The map shows that something like one-eleventh of the population of the Union was living under legal prohibition in 1893.

LIQUOR REGULATIONS IN 1908. In the fifteen years after 1893 license lost ground and local option was the favorite method of dealing with the liquor problem. The thick and thin anti-prohibition states were Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and six states in the Far West. The rise of county option in Alabama changed its status, tho the special prohibition

acts remained in force. Local option held nearly all of New England and the Middle West. Rural prohibition had gained some ground in the southern states, being added to local or county option in Florida and Arkansas. Absolute prohibition had been repealed in Vermont, New Hampshire, South Dakota, and Iowa. Oklahoma was admitted to the Union in 1907 with constitutional prohibition. Local option was the most popular method; it applied to the largest block of population.

LIQUOR REGULATIONS IN 1916. Eight years later straight license remained the legal system only in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Nevada, a considerable part of the state of New York, and in part of Nebraska. In Maryland special prohibition acts were added to license. Local option extended to Utah and California, and New Mexico had added it to rural prohibition. It or county option had also existed temporarily in Idaho, Washington, Oregon, and Arizona; but had been abandoned in favor of absolute prohibition by these states, as well as by Iowa, Colorado and most of the southern states. In Tennessee prohibition was not formal; but due to the extension of the so-called "Four Mile Law" to the whole of the state, it was practically prohibition territory and is so colored. The Middle West was still strong for local or county option, as was New England. License, local, and county option were still the legal method of control under which 73,000,000 of our 106,000,000 people lived.

LIQUOR REGULATIONS IN 1920. The whole liquor situation was profoundly affected by the entrance of the United States into the World War in 1917. Congress came to the conclusion that the sale of liquor would interfere with the efficiency of the military service; hence, by Act of November 11, 1918, the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors in the United States ceased temporarily on July 11, 1919. Then the Eighteenth Amendment, absolutely prohibiting the manufacture, transport, or sale of intoxicating liquor in the United States, was ratified by the action of the legislatures of thirty-six states on or before January 16, 1919. Nine other states eventually ratified the amendment, bringing the total to forty-five states, the exceptions being Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Connecticut. The amendment went into effect on January 17, 1920, nullifying or superseding every state or constitutional provision which was not in accordance with it.

What was the state of the country on liquor regulation on the day before the Eighteenth Amendment went into effect? The map of 1920 shows that Pennsylvania and New Jersey retained their license laws to the end. Local option laws of one type or another were still in force in nine states, including New York and Massachusetts. County Option held its own only in Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Minnesota. Rural prohibition also existed in Minnesota. Maryland had still only the special prohibition laws. Absolute prohibition was the rule at that time in thirty-two of the forty-eight states, including more than one-half of the population of the United States. On a county basis it is estimated that ninety-five per cent of the land area of the United States was "dry" and this area contained about sixty-eight per cent of the nation's population.

MAP A41. SOURCES OF IMMIGRANTS

Writers on the history and politics of the United States agree that one of the most important influences on the development of this country and on the establishment of our ideals is the vast foreign population which has been steadily pouring into the United States during the last century or so. The principal purpose of this map is to show graphically those regions which have furnished us this immense body of immigrants, amounting between 1821-1925 to a total of 36,000,000 persons. The total number of immigrants from 1821 to 1920 is displayed graphically on Map 26.

A second problem closely related to the sources of immigrants is the distribution of white foreigners in various parts of the United States. A third matter covered is the distribution of the Negroes, descendants of a very different class of immigrants, most of whom were imported previous to 1800. A comparison of the two lower maps shows that the Negro race is located almost entirely in the South, a section which has received very few of the white foreigners; while the white immigrant population has settled in the North and West. As a result, there is, except in some of the large cities, very little contact between the foreign born whites and the Negroes.

SOURCES OF IMMIGRANTS. The upper map is carefully laid out to bring out the connection of Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America with the United States. The red lines starting from principal ports of departure in Europe show the principal lines of travel followed by ocean shipping, especially the immigrant lines. The British Islands, Germany and Italy have furnished the largest number of immigrants to the United States.

The bulk of the immigrants have entered the United States thru the port of New York; however many have landed at Boston, Providence and Baltimore and others at the Canadian ports of Montreal and Halifax. Asiatic immigrants have come chiefly to Seattle and San Francisco. Immigration from South and Central America has always been small. Some of it reaches New Orleans and Galveston, but most of it goes to New York. There is immigration across the border from northern Mexico, much of it illegal.

The map brings out important questions regarding relations between the United States and Asia. The Philippine Islands are shown to be incorporated into the governmental system of the United States and consequently outside of the exclusion areas. The natives of Japan, the mainland areas under Japanese control, and eastern China are indicated as being excluded from the United States because they are ineligible to citizenship. The Japanese are excluded under an act of Congress, 1924. By treaty with China in 1880 and renewed in 1894, no Chinese, except diplomats, merchants, travelers, and students, can enter the United States. China abrogated the treaty in 1904, but the restriction has continued under acts of Congress from 1882 on. Vast regions in central and southern Asia, extending as far westward as the Caspian Sea, are designated as being in an officially barred zone.

NEGROES, 1920. This map is based upon statistics furnished by the United States Census. It brings out clearly the

distribution of the ten million Negroes living in the United States in 1920. Practically all of them have been born in the United States, Negro immigration from the West Indies and from Africa amounting to only a few hundred a year. As might be expected, the Negroes are bulked in the South, particularly in the areas where they have for more than a century been employed in raising southern crops, especially cotton. In several of the larger northern cities, such as New York, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, and Chicago, large Negro settlements exist.

ORIENTALS. The Orientals in the United States in 1920 numbered around 111,000 Japanese and 62,000 Chinese. The red circles on the map show them to be concentrated principally in the San Francisco area and along the upper Pacific Coast. They also are found in the great northern cities of New York, Chicago, Boston.

MEXICANS. The immigration of Mexicans has become a very serious question, as is shown by the distribution of the red dots on the map. They are found in considerable numbers in southern Texas, Arizona and southern California.

FOREIGN BORN WHITE. Immigrants from Europe have failed to settle in the South either as artisans or as farmers. Outside of a few areas in Florida and along the Gulf Coast, there are almost no areas in which immigrants have settled in large numbers; and the descendants of foreign born persons are very few, except in Louisiana. The thickest settlements are, as one would expect, in and near the ports of entry, from Boston to Baltimore. The areas in which the population of foreign born people and their children is largest are New England and the New York metropolitan area. The two northern tiers of states between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River also contain a large number of foreign born persons, as do some sections of the Far West. The dense foreign born population along the southern boundary of the United States is made up chiefly of Mexicans.

The graph at the foot of the map brings out an important fact. Out of a total population of 106,000,000 in the continental area of the United States in 1920, only a little more than one half, or around 58,000,000, were native whites of native parents. The make-up of the rest of the population was as follows: 22,000,000 were born in this country of foreign born parents, 10,000,000 were Negroes, and 14,000,000 persons had been born in other lands. The foreign born and their children made up about 36,000,000 or a third of the population.

MAP A42. IMMIGRATION OF VARIOUS PEOPLES

The distribution of the principal immigrant groups of the United States is shown on this series of maps. The distribution is indicated by a series of dots, each representing 1000 people. The additional graphs indicate the number of immigrants arriving in five year periods from 1846 on.

ENGLISH, WELSH, SCOTCH, AND CANADIANS, 1920. The earliest immigrants into the present United States were English, tho from the first there were Irish, Scotch-Irish,

Dutch, Germans, and a few French and Spanish. The descendants of these earlier immigrants have all been merged into the general population; but immigration of Welsh, English, and Scotch has continued in every decade. In New England, the white immigrants from the British Empire are almost all Canadians, most of whom are of French stock. The Canadians in Michigan and the states along the northern boundary of the United States from Lake Ontario westward are mostly of English and Scotch strains. The immigrants from overseas are thick in New York City, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, particularly in the mining and iron regions.

GERMANS, 1920. German immigration on a large scale began in 1846. They are very numerous in the stretch from New York to Baltimore, and have for years been an important element in Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Milwaukee, and Minneapolis. They also are scattered widely in the western and northwestern states. Many of them are in the smaller towns, but the greater number are farmers. The graphs show the largest number of German immigrants in any five year period to have been 960,000 in 1881-85. Since the World War the number has been reduced by the immigration quota.

IRISH, 1920. The immigrants direct from southern Ireland, very few in colonial times, began to come over in great numbers in 1846, a famine year in Ireland. From the first they preferred the cities; hence the belt of abundant population of Irish derivation from Massachusetts to southern Pennsylvania. There are also large groups in a few of the middle western cities. Comparatively few Irish are found outside the cities and towns.

SCANDINAVIANS, 1920. The Scandinavians—Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes—were early immigrants, a few hundred having settled on Delaware Bay as early as 1638; but the immigration was not over 25,000 a year until 1880. Since then they have been a considerable element in immigration. A large percentage of the Scandinavians are found in Minnesota, the Dakotas, Iowa, Wisconsin, and northern Illinois. In the last forty years large numbers of them have settled on the Pacific Coast, especially in Seattle, Portland, San Francisco and Los Angeles.

ITALIANS, 1920. The Italians, as may be seen by the graphs, were very slow in starting for the United States. Down to 1886 less than 200,000 in all had come in. From then on the number increased considerably, until in the fifteen years from 1901 to 1915 nearly 3,000,000 entered this country. Since the World War the working of the quota system has been unfavorable to Italians. Nearly all the Italians are massed within the metropolitan area of twelve or fifteen of our large cities.

RUSSIANS, 1920. The term "Russian" does not necessarily mean persons of Russian nationality or language. A few Russians are scattered about rural parts of the country, particularly in North Dakota, where some came over from Canada. Most of the Russians whose distribution is indicated on the map are Hebrews, the greater part of whom speak

Yiddish or German. They are by nature a city folk, over a million of them being settled on the east side of New York. Probably three-fourths of them live in ten of the largest American cities. The graphs show that approximately 2,500,000 Russians entered our country between 1901 and 1915.

MAP A43. TRANSPORTATION AT VARIOUS PERIODS

The development of transportation in the United States is shown on various maps in this atlas. Transportation in the colonial period is shown on Map 7. The development of canals and early railroads is shown on Map 10. A further stage in the development of railroads and western transportation is shown on Map 13. Railroad development at the time of the Civil War is shown on Map 16. The great railroad systems of the present day, together with the principal routes of internal navigation, are shown on Map 19. In the present map, railroad development from 1860 to 1910 is shown. A series of graphs indicate the total railroad mileage, the total amount of roads constructed, the number of passenger miles, and the number of ton miles down thru the decades.

RAILROADS, 1860-1870. Altho there were four years of war during this decade, both the map and the graphs show considerable progress. In 1860 New England and the northern Atlantic states were already well supplied with transportation facilities. Later development here, not only to 1870 but thruout, was mainly in Maine and western Pennsylvania. The former, together with the associated building in northern New Hampshire and Vermont, is connected with the development of Canadian lines, the lumber industry, and summer travel, rather than with any increase in population. In Western Pennsylvania the great coal and iron industry and the newly-developed oil wells explain the great increase in mileage between 1860 and 1870, also later development.

In the Old Northwest, the three older states were already crisscrossed by railroads in 1860; but the development, not only of connecting lines and feeders but also of thru lines, continued to 1870 and beyond. In Michigan and Wisconsin the lines in 1860 ran east and west for the most part; the building during the next ten years was mostly north and south, due to the lumber industry and the following of the farmers close behind the woodmen's advance.

When the southern states seceded there was only one line in the region which connected the Atlantic seaboard with the Mississippi River, and only one continuous line between the Ohio River and the Gulf of Mexico. The main cities of the Atlantic coast from Savannah to Washington were, however, joined (except for a short water trip at the end); and the Appalachians had been crossed at one point. Tho torn by four years of war, some progress was made before the end of the decade, especially in supplying important missing links. Some of these were war-time constructions.

West of the Mississippi, in 1860, the railroads had begun to push toward the frontier in Missouri and Iowa, aided

by large federal land grants to the states; but at only one point, St. Joseph, Missouri, had the Missouri River been reached. In Arkansas and Minnesota no lines were in operation; in Louisiana, west of the Mississippi River, there was only the beginning of the present Southern Pacific system; while in Texas, there were but a few short lines, stubs of the many lines that now radiate from Houston. West of the Missouri the only rails were those extending a few miles from Sacramento, California, lines which in the end did not form a part of the transcontinental system.

The map shows how greatly conditions had changed by 1870, except in the trans-Mississippi South. A good start had been made on Minnesota's system, and six lines now ran thru to the Missouri River to connect with the transcontinental railroads which were being constructed. The first of these Pacific lines was opened in 1869. A second road, thru Kansas, ran to Denver and joined the main line by way of Cheyenne. Also we see the beginning in Kansas of other such trunk lines, and even a few connecting links and feeders, tho these last are more a feature of the later maps.

RAILROADS, 1870-1880. Most of the years of this period were covered by the depression following the panic of 1873. Railroad building had been very active down to the crisis, so that the ten years show a decided advance in transportation facilities, mostly in the newer areas of the West. The thrust into the Great Lakes triangle continued, and Illinois shows considerable north and south building. The trans-Mississippi construction continued to be mainly an east and west one, except for the lines connecting Texas with Kansas and Missouri across the present state of Oklahoma, then still an unorganized territory. No new transcontinental systems were in operation, but the lines were creeping across Dakota, had penetrated to the heart of the Rockies in Colorado, and were being built in New Mexico and Arizona. Agricultural development in California had made railroads necessary in its great valleys. Both on the coast and from the region of Great Salt Lake the beginnings of north and south lines are shown.

The South was not to become the new South until the next decade; the most important additions there were the line to the Ohio by way of the Kanawha, the direct connection of Cincinnati with southern lines at Chattanooga, and the Piedmont roads. The great transportation centers like Atlanta and Birmingham were developed later.

RAILROADS, 1880-1890. This was a period of continuous prosperity, of great increase in population and wealth, and of the awakening of the South. There is a marked penetration of new lines into the trans-Mississippi portion of the South. In the North the development of the mining region of northern Michigan is indicated. Three new transcontinental lines were placed in operation within the United States, and the Canadian Pacific was connected with American railroads. In the Far West, north and south building had now not only linked up the Pacific Coast states but had joined the Far Northwest with the Utah-Colorado section. The transportation development in the Far West is more intimately connected with the trunk lines than in the East. In the older states railroads followed the lines of economic demand; in the

West the great systems, built under governmental bounty, were intended to serve political purposes. They were not constructed because of economic demand but to encourage economic development.

RAILROADS, 1890-1910. The period of this map is twenty years. The first half was again largely one of hard times following another panic, and there was very little railroad building. The second decade was one of great prosperity; however, as the graphs show, the period was marked more by the greater use of existing roads than by new construction. The maze of old lines had now extended well into the second tier of states west of the Mississippi, and the crisscross of railroads is to be seen in almost every state west of these, especially in California and Colorado. Another transcontinental line, the Great Northern, had been put thru; and the connection of the Pacific Northwest with the Gulf region is to be noticed, as well as the connection of Utah with the Los Angeles neighborhood. East of the 100th meridian there was considerable building in eastern North Dakota, Oklahoma, West Virginia, and in practically all of the southern states from Virginia to Texas.

MAP A44. POWER OF THE VOTER

One of the most important subjects connected with American history and government is the means by which the will of the voter is translated into the choice of public officials. This map is devoted to outstanding questions involving the relation of the voter to parties, to elections, and to what is called direct legislation; *i. e.*, the making or modifying of constitutions and laws by submitting propositions of the voters at large for their decision by majority vote, or the initiation by the voters of such measures. These new political methods, except so far as they relate to methods of nomination and election, do not apply to federal affairs. These maps deal with statewide conditions only.

STATEWIDE-INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM. Referendum is a word describing a method by which action taken by constitutional conventions or legislatures is submitted to the people for their expression of approval or disapproval thru popular vote. The system when applied to constitutions or bodies of fundamental laws is known as a "constitutional referendum" and was first applied in the United States to the Massachusetts constitution of 1780. At present there is only one state in the Union, Delaware, in which a constitutional amendment can be put into force in any other manner than by a vote of the electorate.

Legislative bodies have always had the right of submitting an act of legislation to the vote of the people. This map, however, deals only with the new power, the right of the voters to demand, if a sufficient number of them so petition, that a bill be submitted to and accepted by the people before it becomes a law. In such cases, thru referendum, it is possible for the voters to go over the heads of the legislature. This system is legal in Maine, Massachusetts, Maryland, Ohio, Michigan, and most of the states west of the Mississippi.

Legislative initiative may be either indirect or direct. The former provides that an initiated bill go to the legislature for

consideration. If that body passes the bill as submitted to it by the popular petition, the enactment is completed, unless held up for referendum; but if the legislature rejects it or neglects to act upon it within a certain time, the bill is submitted to popular vote. The legislature may also submit an amended bill. This method holds in Maine, Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, South Dakota, and Nevada. The direct legislative initiative, called "legislative initiative" on map, does not give the legislature any share in the measure; it is submitted directly to popular vote. This is the more common method, and was legal in twelve states in 1926. Under both systems the bill has its origin in a popular petition.

Indirect and direct constitutional initiative is the application of the same methods to constitutional amendments, except that the safeguards are stronger, and in the indirect system there is always a popular vote after the judgment of the legislature. The former is at present operative only in Massachusetts and Nevada; the latter is operative in eleven states. Two states, Ohio and Michigan, that have indirect legislative initiative have direct constitutional initiative; while five states, Maine, South Dakota, Utah, Montana, and Washington, have only the legislative initiative. Maryland and New Mexico have the referendum without the initiative, and in Mississippi the direct legislative system was declared unconstitutional. In New England, Maryland, Ohio, Michigan, and many western states these new methods of initiative and referendum have taken root. Nevertheless, the majority of the states have not gone beyond the requirement that a new constitutional amendment or constitution must be ratified by the people.

RECALL OF OFFICIALS. In the last twenty years there has sprung up a method of calling an official to account before his term expires. It began in Oregon in 1908; and in that state, Nevada, and Kansas there exists the right to recall both appointive and elective officials, whether administrative or judicial. In another group of five states any person chosen by vote of the people—governor, auditor, judge, or whatever he may be—is subject to being confronted with a special test election if a sufficient number of voters petition for it. Another variety of the recall, legal in Washington, Louisiana, and Michigan, applies to all elected officials except judges. The total number of states now operating some kind of recall is eleven, only two of which are east of the Mississippi. The question of the recall of judges is a special one because it is likely to be put in action if a judge makes an unpopular decision. Most communities desire judges who will not be swayed in their decisions by the opinions of other persons.

REGULATION OF NOMINATIONS AND CAMPAIGNS. Until about 1910 the American theory of nominations and campaigns was that they were unofficial, tho conducted under legal regulations. The political parties generally printed their own ballots. The introduction of the Australian ballot brought about a great change; under that system all the ballots are official, printed by the state or local government, tho they are bound to put on the ballot the candidates of regular parties. Hence, the question: Who is to decide what is a regular party, and whether the candidates have gone thru the forms required by that party? Clearly, the official election officers. By this process

and resulting organization the political parties became part of the official system.

In the reform of electoral law, it was usual to provide that any body of persons might be recognized a regular party if they had polled a certain proportion of the total vote at the previous election. This proportion is sometimes large, especially in the South. The next step was to lay down laws for the open election of party committees. Another reform provided that party officials spending money must report the amount spent and for what purposes it was spent; and they were limited in many states to a fixed sum for each candidate, or to a certain amount per vote. The most effective laws call for month to month statements during the campaign.

The most important of the state restrictions on what had heretofore been considered voluntary parties is set forth in the map. In all the states in the Union, except four, there exists some form of regulation of nominations and campaigns. In nearly all the states a primary election is necessary to determine what persons really are the candidates of the party. A large number of states also call for primary election of committeemen or delegates to party conventions within the state, or both. In about twenty states delegates to the national nominating conventions of all parties must be chosen in a primary election; or the voters may indicate their preference for the candidate for whom the state's delegates should vote. In a group of southern states a primary may be held under state auspices if so desired by the party. This optional feature extends also to the primary election of party representatives. In a few states, New York, Indiana, and Idaho, a nominating convention is required for the higher offices. In most states the old nominating convention is prohibited.

A few states, pointed out on the map by the letters "NP" (non-partisan), require special machinery for the nomination of judges, intended to take them out of party warfare. The method is sometimes also applied to other offices.

SYSTEMS OF VOTING. Before a person can vote he must be registered. That is he must present himself to certain officials and, by satisfying them of his qualifications, have his name placed on the polling list. In colonial times voters often voted orally for their candidate, and that was the method on and off in Kentucky until about 1890. In the original paper ballot the name of the candidate was written in by the voter. Then came the system of printed ballots furnished by the candidates or parties. These were supposed to be secret ballots, tho party tickets could frequently be recognized by their color. By 1890 a system of printed tickets, prepared without state supervision, was practically universal. Then began the introduction of the so-called Australian ballot.

In the case of the Australian ballot the names of all party candidates are printed, under public supervision, on a large sheet of paper. Voters mark the names of those whom they prefer; it is effectively a secret ballot. An objection to this system, as originally carried out, was that large numbers of voters desired only to vote the ticket of the party with which they were connected; and it was a hardship to oblige them to hunt thru the ballot for names which were often arranged alphabetically. Hence, various systems of block voting came about.

In providing for block voting the easiest method was to arrange the candidates in party columns, each with an emblem at its head so that even the illiterate voter might put a cross in one place and vote the whole ticket. This so-called straight voting is the present method in about half the states of the Union. Another system is that of office grouping of candidates. That is, all those running for the same office are placed together; there is no straight voting. This system is used in Massachusetts, New York, and many southern and far western states. Finally two states, Pennsylvania and Nebraska, while arranging the ballots for office grouping, have methods by which a single cross registers a straight vote, *i. e.*, a vote for all the candidates of a specified party. In two states, North Carolina and South Carolina, separate party tickets must be passed upon in advance by public officials to see that there is no fraud. At the present time the systems of straight voting in party columns and voting office groups without straight voting are the most widespread in the United States.

MAP A45. CHART OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The American government is the most complicated in the world, for it includes at least four different kinds of government, all of which may be operating at once in a given area. Everybody is subject to federal, state, and county law and government, and most of us to city, town, or borough law and government. Out of all these, the simplest in form and the best fitted together is the federal government, whose authority and subdivision into three coordinate departments is delineated in this chart.

First and most important is the source of governmental authority, as operated thru the federal union. As the chart shows the bottom rock of popular government is the people; the actual political force is the voters or such part of them as go to the polls. The "people of the United States" can, by going at it in the right way and observing the limitations of the federal Constitution, legally make any change that they desire in the federal government.

The federal Constitution is bound to alter from generation to generation because new tasks are cast upon it; because it may be amended at any time; and because, by the decisions of courts, the forces of tradition, and the following of precedent, its weight varies. The Constitution limits its own working; first, by the great principle that no power can be exercised which is not somewhere authorized either directly or indirectly in its text; second, by limitations protecting personal liberty in clauses relating to that subject.

Under the federal Constitution three parallel departments of the government are set up, legislative, executive, and judiciary; and in theory the three are entirely independent of each other. The general organization of Congress into two houses, however, as set forth in the chart, is not the whole of the legislative power. The President has a share in all the acts of Congress by his power of approval or veto of bills. Likewise, the courts are a part of the legislative power because they have authority to construe and apply legislative acts. The immense

legislative powers of the government are classified in the chart, and attention is particularly called to the importance of implied power.

The "executive" includes not alone the President but also the Vice-President, the ten departments headed by cabinet officers, and many thousands of officials and employees of the government. The President, as the chart indicates, shares in the legislative power in various ways and to a less degree in the judicial power.

The judiciary is the smallest but in some ways the most powerful of the three branches of government. Its organization is set forth in the chart and also its direct and indirect powers, the most important of which is the authority (frequently exercised) of holding state or federal statutes unconstitutional and therefore void. It possesses like authority of quashing action taken by executive officials.

The two maps on the chart bring out the geographical setting of the federal capital. One shows the District of Columbia and environs; and the other, the city of Washington with its parks and public buildings.

MAP A46. CHART OF STATE GOVERNMENT

More difficult to draw up in brief form is the state government. The voters are the same as in federal affairs; but each state has its own constitution, influences the national government thru its representatives in Congress, and participates in alterations of the federal Constitution. Above all, every state has the right to exercise powers of government so far as not prevented by the federal Constitution or its own constitution. The state governments come into many more relations with their citizens than does the national government; and they must deal with many matters bearing directly on the individual rights of their citizens.

The three departments of state governments are very like those of the federal government. The legislatures, the governors and the heads of executive departments, and the judiciary all act on much the same principle as in the federal government; but the powers of all three of the great subdivisions of government extend to many more subjects than in the federal government, because of the reservation to the states of all governing powers not vested in the federal government by the Constitution of the United States. No chart can enumerate any considerable number of powers possessed either by the federal or the state government; their organization is too detailed.

This chart brings out a fact sometimes left out of account. That is, that county, town or townships, and city governments are all a part of the state system. They are created by state constitutions or laws, and they are all subject to change by the same forces that made them. Great efforts have been made to carry the idea of division of powers among three departments far down into these local governments. The principle, however, does not apply to such creation by the state government, for in the counties the legislative and executive powers

are never distinctly separated. The county courts are not really a part of the county government; they are branches of the state government acting within the particular county.

The graphs show where the income of the states comes from and for what purpose it is spent. The two maps show the way in which a typical state, Iowa, is divided into districts for a variety of purposes, usually bringing together several counties. In some states a single county, *e. g.*, Cook County, Illinois, may be divided into several districts.

MAP A47. CHART OF CITY GOVERNMENT

The city government chart is arranged on substantially the same lines as those for federal and state governments. As a matter of fact, cities have no judicial branch in their government; the so-called city courts are simply state courts authorized to act within a city, but subject to appeal to higher state courts.

At present, city governments in the United States are grouped into three general types: *viz.*, Mayor-Council, Commission, and City Manager. The differences are brought out in the text of the chart. In either of the three cases there must be a charter which, whether individual or one of a type authorized by a general statute, springs from the state government and may be altered or annulled at the will of that superior authority. Such changes in charters are frequent.

In the Mayor-Council system there is a mayor alongside a legislative body, sometimes of two houses, but usually of one house. Good government depends on how the two elements get along. In the Commission plan, the legislative body, or city council, is made up of a few men called a Board of Commission. The board by majority vote passes orders on public matters; each member is also the head of an executive department, thereby centralizing responsibility. Under the Commission plan, indeed under all city plans, a board of education or school committee is commonly set up which is really a separate legislative or executive committee, responsible directly to the voters. Under the City Manager plan the city is run as a great corporation would be run, by the appointment of a City Manager who does what the president of a corporation or the chairman of the executive committee of a corporation would do. There is usually some sort of council, which is expected to pay due regard to the plans of the City Manager. All other city officials are subject to his orders so far as he is within the law.

The map of the United States shows the distribution of the principal Manager and Commission cities; and also of the principal Mayor-Council cities of the old-type. The Commission form, which originated in Galveston about 1912, has spread widely to the eastern half of the United States. The

Manager plan is more popular in the South and in California. The old-fashioned type is almost the only type in New England and in most of our largest cities.

The map of Chicago shows the irregularity and lack of system in the subdivision of the cities into wards; however in most cities wards are only administrative organizations, having no civic life of their own. The graphs show the sources of city income, the purposes of city outgo, and the distribution and collection of taxes for federal, state, county, and city purposes.

A widely spread type of city government is the Incorporated Village, an outline of which is also included on the chart. As in the case of the other forms of city government, the set up follows as nearly as possible three parallel departments, legislative, executive, and judiciary.

MAP A48. UNITED STATES TODAY

When studying American history, it is often necessary to refer to a general map of present day United States in order to compare past situations with those of the present. This map is intended to be used primarily for this purpose. It shows the external boundaries of the continental area, and the state boundaries which are now adjusted and settled almost to the last mile. It also serves as an historical summary of the admission of states into the Union, the dates being inscribed on each of the states.

The thirteen original states came into the Union by their own right, and all except Rhode Island shared in the framing of the Constitution. Every one of the thirty-five other states has come into the Union under the terms of a specific act of Congress. Except for Texas and California and for the states of Maine, Vermont, Kentucky and West Virginia, the latter four having been formed by separation from other states, they all went thru a previous existence as an organized territory or part of an organized territory.

In a few cases limitations were laid upon states on entrance into the Union; for instance, all the states in the original Northwest Territory were bound by the conditions of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Those conditions, however, have now ceased to have any significance; and the forty-eight states are politically equal in their relations and obligations to the Union, also in the privileges to be derived from the Union and in their relations with each other.

Within each state is shown every place which has ever been its official capital; in earlier times this meant simply where the legislature met. (Special inset for Vermont and New Hampshire.) The explanations in the legend show how the reader may distinguish places that had served as colonial or prestate capitals, former state capitals, former federal capitals, present state capitals, and the present federal capital.

PRINCIPAL AIR LINES OF THE UNITED STATES

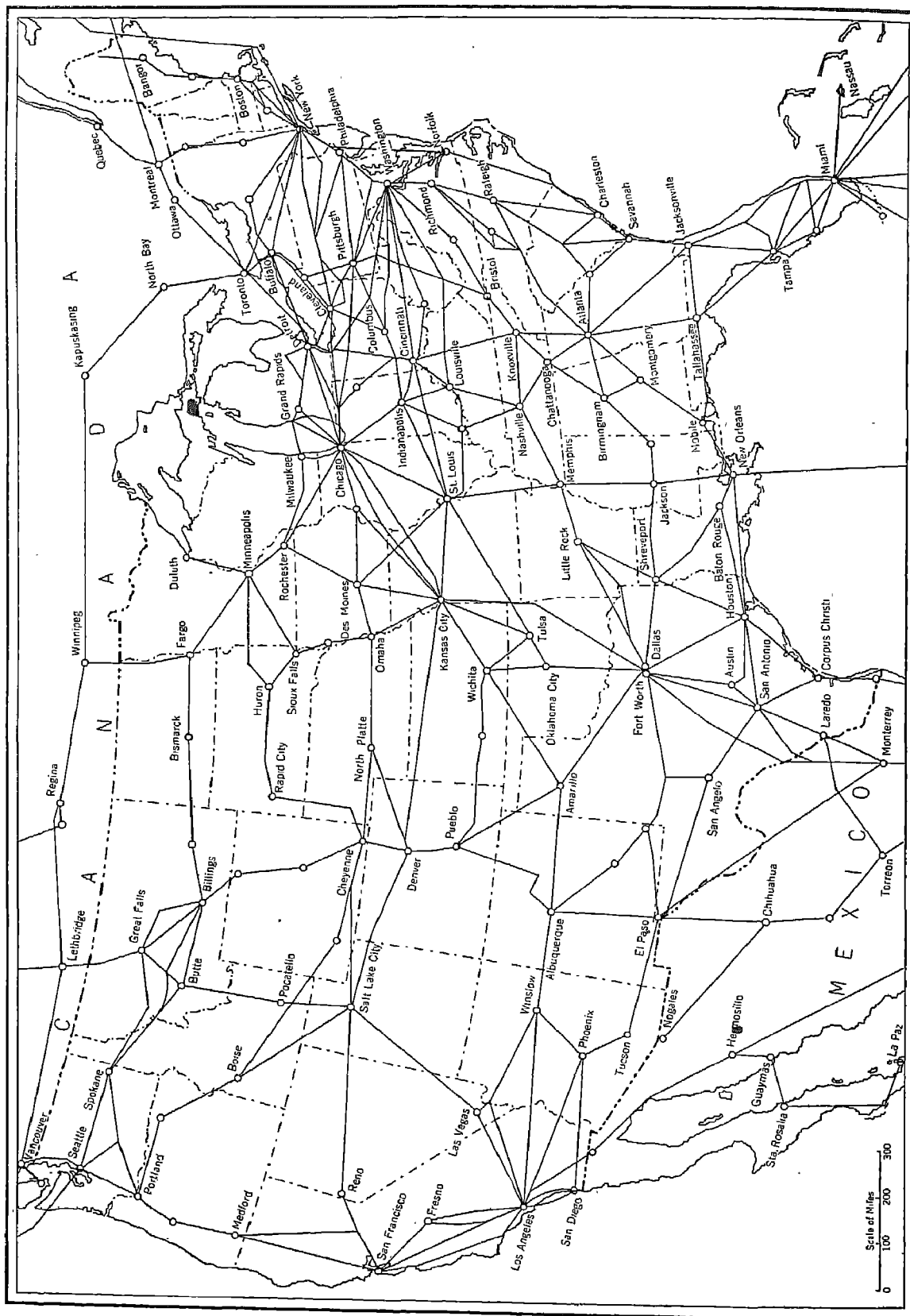


Figure I. PRINCIPAL AIR LINES OF THE UNITED STATES

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AIR ROUTES OF THE WORLD

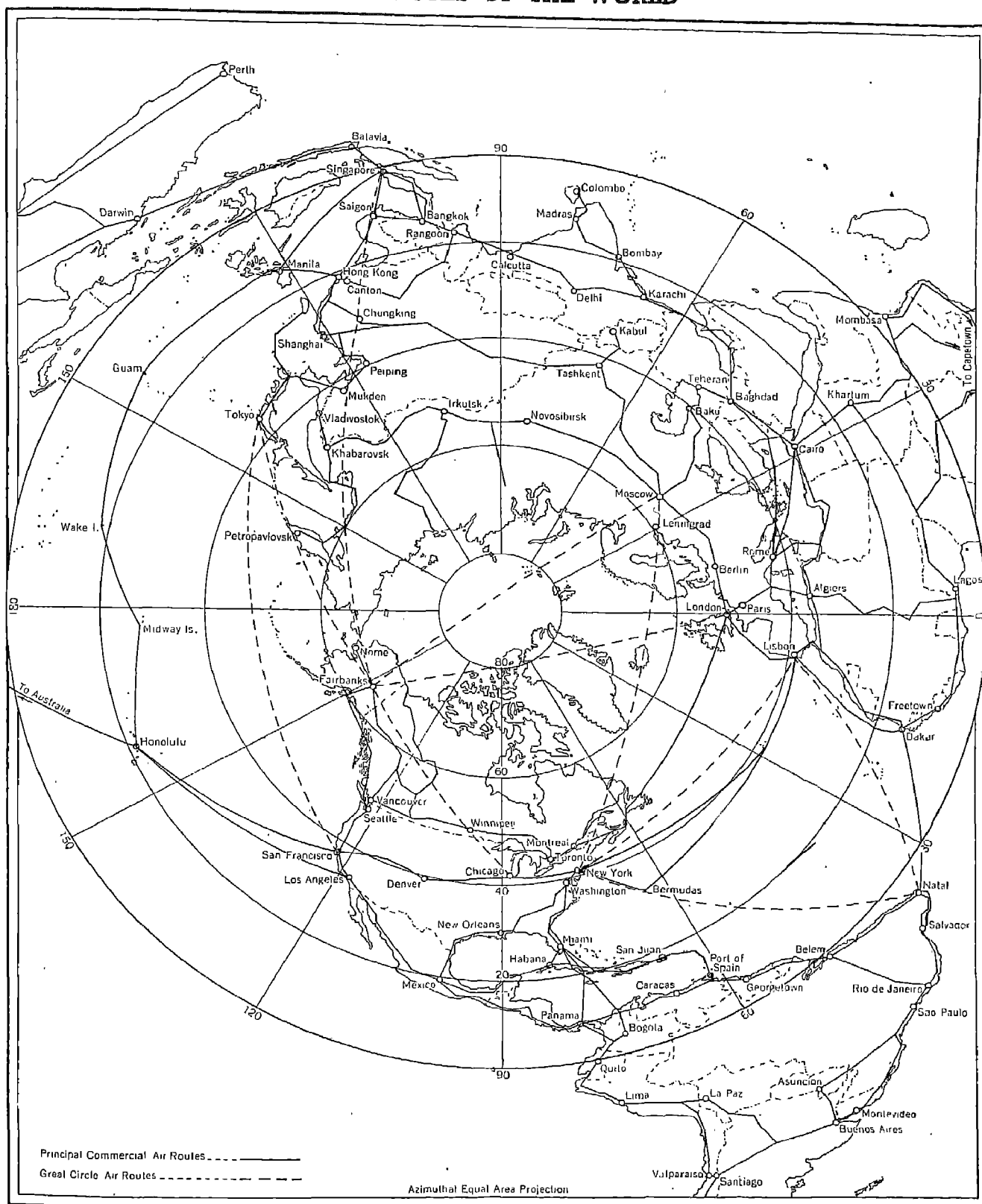


Figure II. AIR ROUTES OF THE WORLD

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PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1928-1932

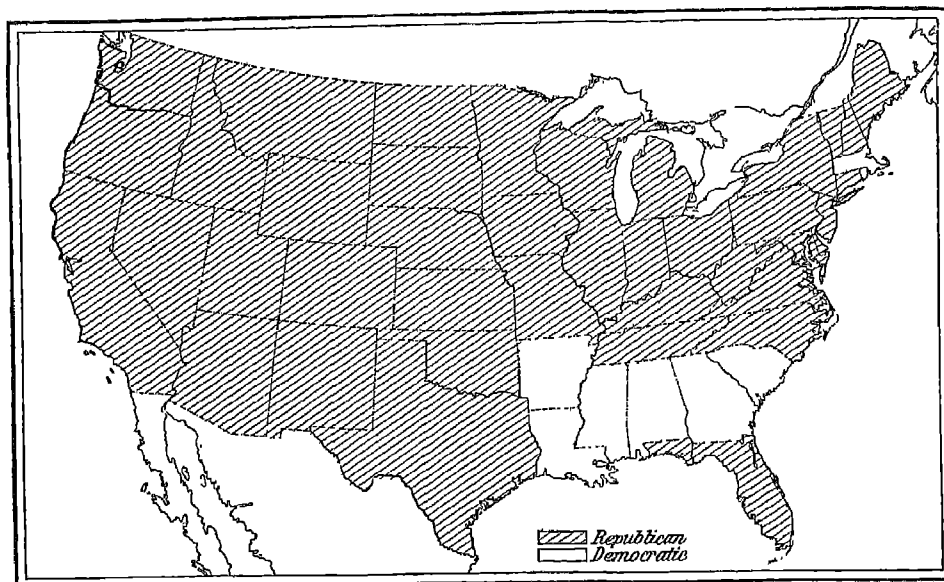


Figure III. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1928

1928 ELECTORAL VOTE, 531
POPULAR VOTE, 36,855,079
 Hoover 444 Smith 87 Republican 21,482,000 Democratic 15,011,000 Minor 361,000

ELECTION OF 1928. The Republicans nominated Herbert Hoover, Coolidge's Secretary of Commerce, and promised farm relief, tariff revision, and the enforcement of the 18th Amendment. The Democrats nominated Alfred E. Smith, Governor of New York, and condemned the Republican ad-

ministration on its domestic and foreign policies. In addition, Smith advocated fundamental changes in national prohibition. The Republicans carried 40 of the 48 states, including four (Virginia, North Carolina, Florida, and Texas) which had been solidly Democratic since the days of reconstruction.

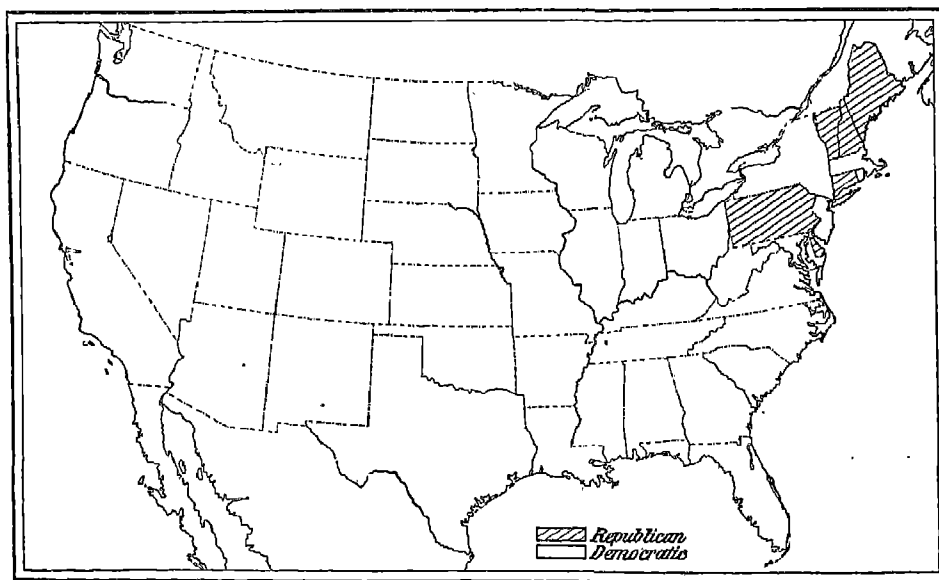


Figure IV. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1932

1932 ELECTORAL VOTE, 531
POPULAR VOTE, 38,584,000
 Hoover 59 Roosevelt 472 Republican 15,762,000 Democratic 22,822,000 Minor 988,000

ELECTION OF 1932. Only seven months of Hoover's administration had passed when the great "crash" came. In the election of 1930 the Republicans lost control of Congress and little constructive legislation was passed. At the very depth of the depression, the 1932 presidential election took place.

Hoover, re-nominated by the Republicans, was opposed by Franklin Delano Roosevelt. The Democrats advocated outright repeal of prohibition, while the Republicans favored modification; however, the great depression overshadowed everything else in the campaign. Hoover was defeated.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1936-1940

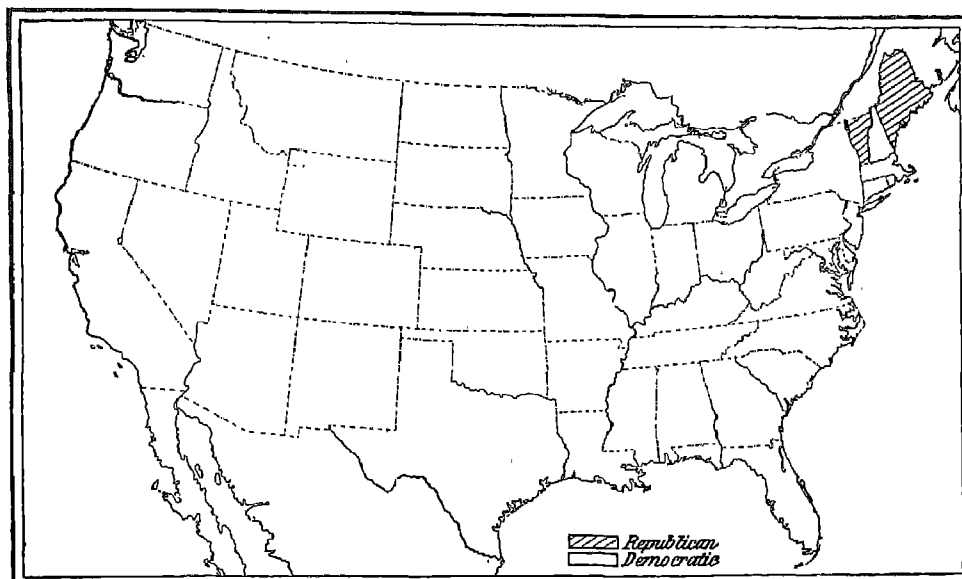


Figure V. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1936

1936 ELECTORAL VOTE, 531
POPULAR VOTE, 45,500,000
Landon 8 Roosevelt 523 Republican 16,680,000 Democratic 27,750,000 Minor 1,070,000

ELECTION OF 1936. As soon as Roosevelt took office he proceeded to introduce the "New Deal" which he had promised in his campaign, Congress proving unusually cooperative. In the congressional elections of 1934, approval of the "New Deal" was demonstrated by further increasing the already heavy

Democratic majority. In the 1936 campaign and election the Republicans, sharply attacking many methods of the "New Deal," chose Landon of Kansas as their candidate. Roosevelt was re-elected by a vote of landslide proportions. Landon carried only two states.

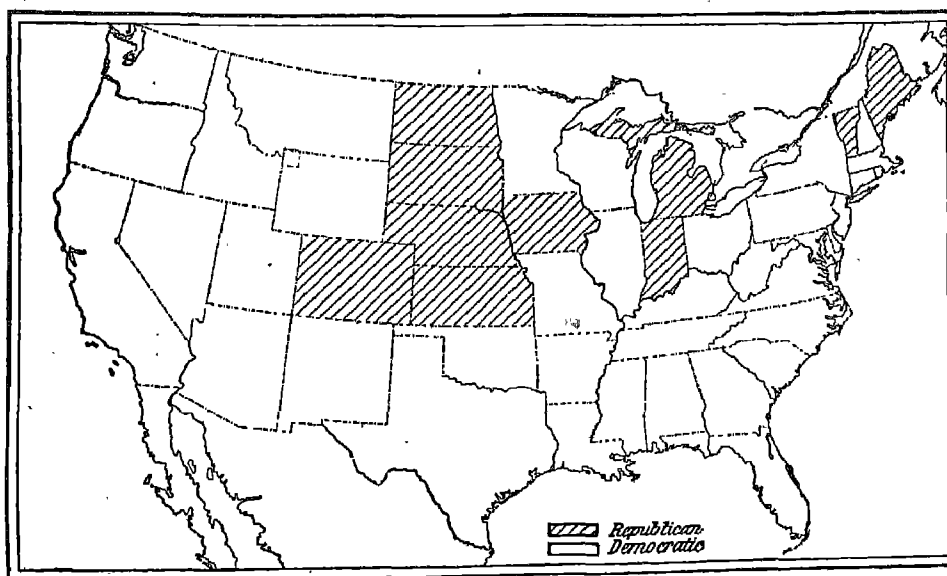


Figure VI. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1940

1940 ELECTORAL VOTE, 531
POPULAR VOTE, 49,800,000
Willkie 82 Roosevelt 449 Republican 22,327,000 Democratic 27,242,000 Minor 240,000

ELECTION OF 1940. The development of opposition to Roosevelt's policies was manifested in the 1938 Congressional elections, the Republicans making substantial gains, but not enough to endanger Democratic control. In 1940 the Republicans selected Wendell Willkie to head their ticket, the Demo-

crats again chose Roosevelt. World War II cast its shadow over the election. Altho Willkie conducted an aggressive campaign, the disinclination to change leaders in midstream proved a determining factor in the outcome. Roosevelt was re-elected in spite of the precedent against a third term.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1944

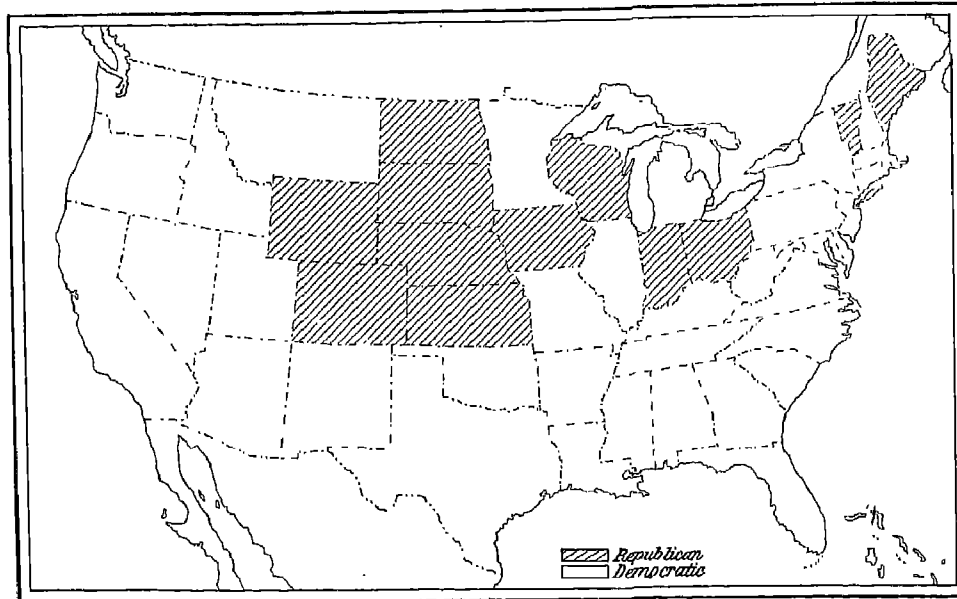


Figure VII. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1944

1944 ELECTORAL VOTE, 531		POPULAR VOTE, 47,830,000		
Dewey 99	Roosevelt 432	Republican 22,180,000	Democratic 25,610,000	Minor 40,000

ELECTION OF 1944. The conduct of World War II did not become a critical issue of the campaign. Instead, the Republicans, with Thomas E. Dewey as their candidate, centered their criticism on increased government expenditures, as well as on the

administration's labor policies, its conduct of foreign affairs, and on its lack of preparation for the war; also, a fourth term for Roosevelt was attacked as a dangerous precedent. However, due largely to the war, Roosevelt was re-elected.

FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM

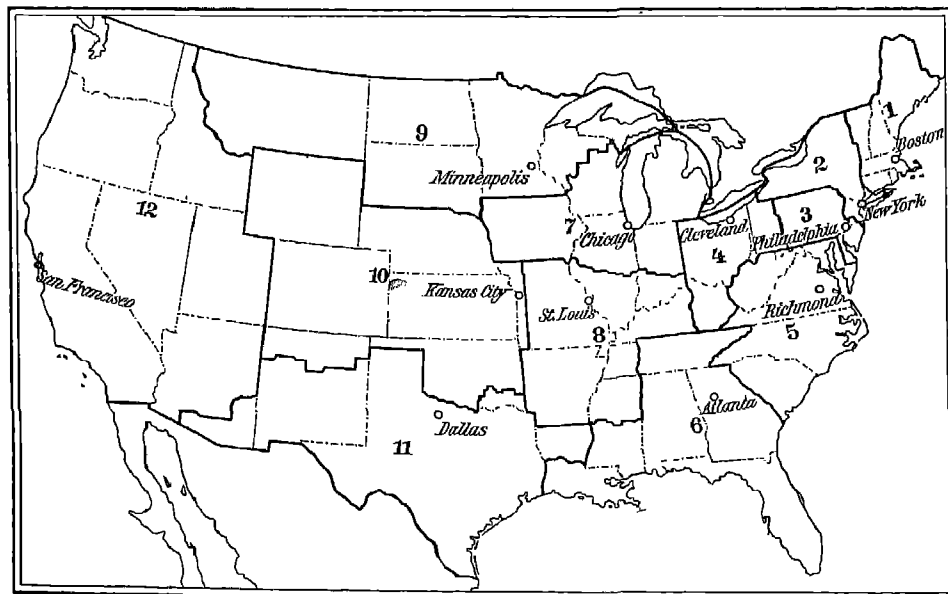


Figure VIII. FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM.

The Federal Reserve Act divides the country into twelve districts, each containing a Federal Reserve Bank. All national banks, and such state banks as wish to do so, may become members and are required to deposit therein a specified part of

their funds. A reserve bank has no dealings with individuals, only member banks. By sending money where needed and by using bank notes to meet special emergencies, the Federal Reserve System has stabilized our credit system.

POPULATION DENSITY 1940

POPULATION DENSITY OF THE UNITED STATES
BY COUNTIES: 1940

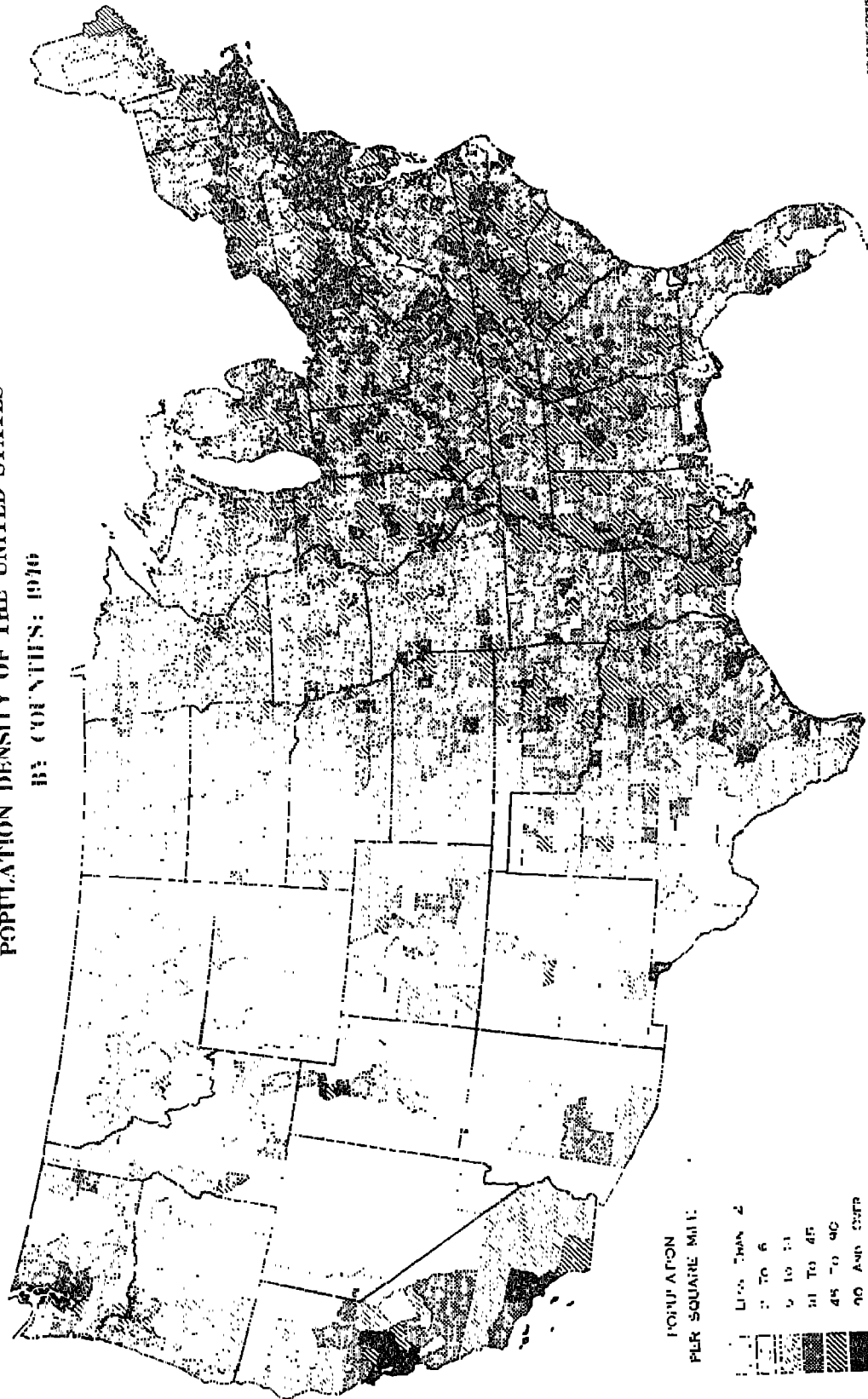


Figure IX. POPULATION DENSITY 1940

UNITED STATES ARMY AREAS

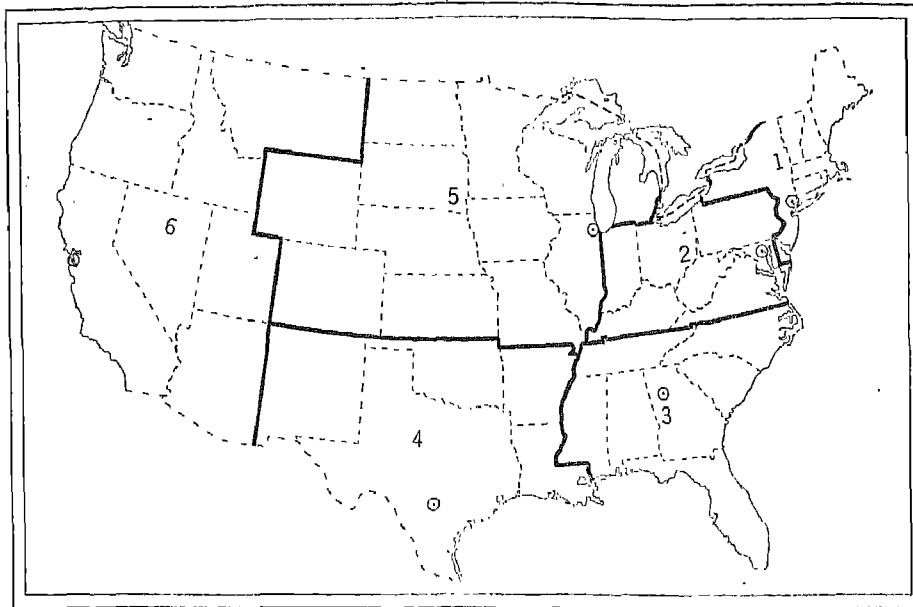


Figure X. UNITED STATES ARMY AREAS

For purposes of national defense the United States is divided into six army areas.

Jurisdiction over each area is exercised from a centrally located headquarters within the boundaries of the area. These headquarters are located as follows:

First Army Area.....	New York
Second Army Area.....	Baltimore
Third Army Area.....	Atlanta
Fourth Army Area.....	San Antonio
Fifth Army Area.....	Chicago
Sixth Army Area.....	San Francisco

DEFENSE OF THE AMERICAS

The question of hemisphere defense has become one of the most urgent problems for the United States and the other countries in the Americas. The close cooperation of United States, the British Commonwealth of Nations and the Latin American countries has led to a comprehensive plan for defense. In the Caribbean area the United States has for several years been strengthening its defenses, particularly in relation to the safety of the Panama Canal. In 1917 the United States

acquired possession of the Virgin Islands from Denmark and early in the century had secured a base at Guantanamo, Cuba.

With developments of World War II the need for further defense action was necessary. With the cooperation of Britain, the United States leased a series of bases along the eastern Atlantic rim, from Guiana to Newfoundland.

On the accompanying map are shown the principal bases of the United States and the nations cooperating in hemispheric defense during World War II.



Figure XI. DEFENSE OF THE AMERICAS

DEFENSE BASES FOR EASTERN COAST AND PANAMA CANAL

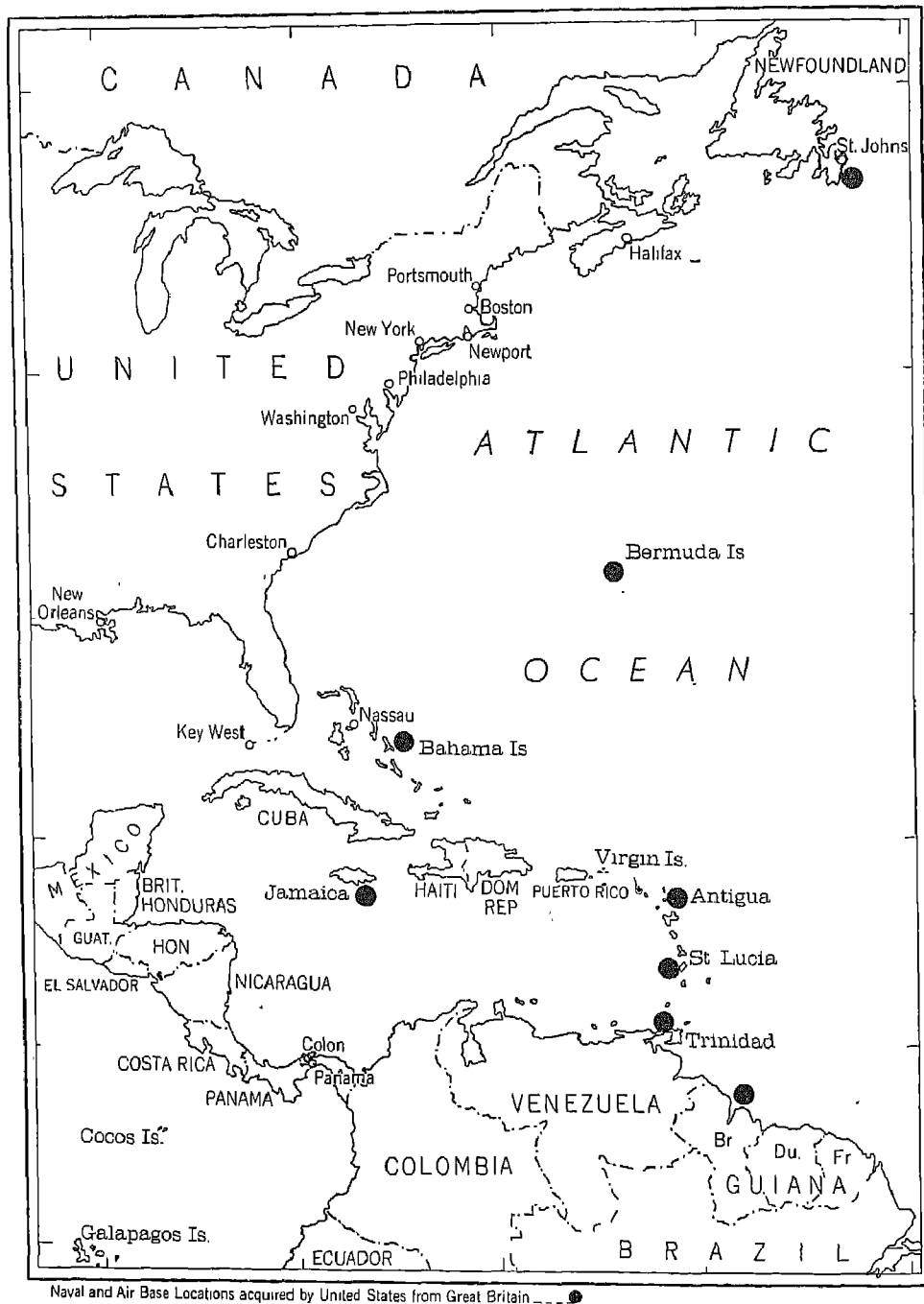


Figure XII. DEFENSE BASES FOR EASTERN COAST AND PANAMA CANAL

For many years our military strategists have felt that we should have airports or naval bases in islands in both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The purchase of the Danish Virgin Islands was a step in this direction, but now we have acquired by gift from Great Britain two bases, one in Newfoundland, and the other in Bermuda. In addition to this, we

have leased a number of bases in the Caribbean area for a period covering 99 years. These places are shown on the accompanying map. The United States has also negotiated long-term leases of bases in the various Latin-American republics adjacent to the Panama Canal region.

FEDERATION AND EXPANSION OF CANADA

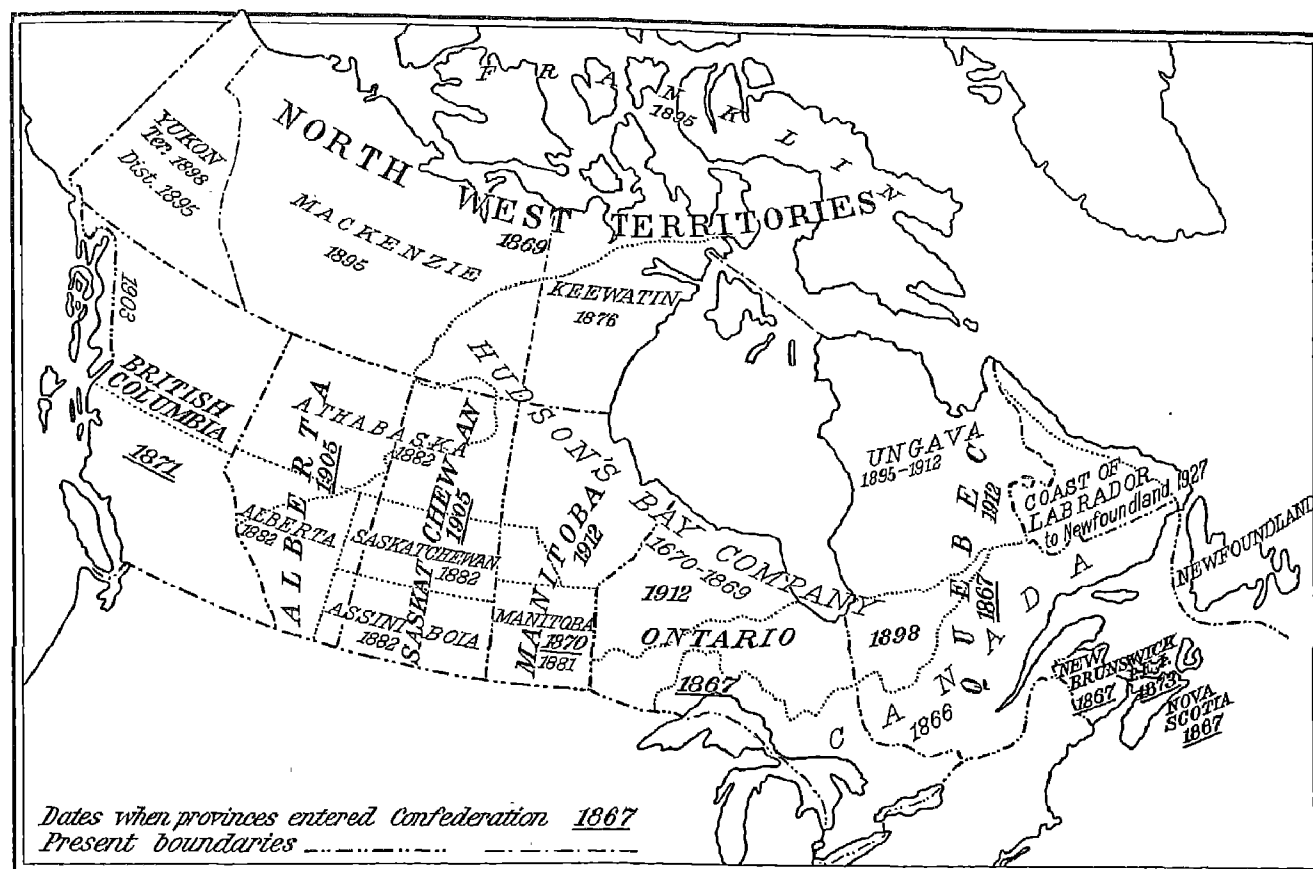


Figure XIII. FEDERATION AND EXPANSION OF CANADA

In previous maps, 1, 2, 4, 6, and 8, some aspects of the development of British North America are presented. Occupied by the French in the seventeenth century, the region received the name of New France. Acadia was ceded by France to England in 1713. In 1759-60 the British effected the conquest of Canada which was formally relinquished by France in the Treaty of Paris, 1763. In 1791 the provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada were formed out of the province of Quebec. The so-called Maritime Province—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton Island, and Prince Edward Island—continued under separate administrations. In 1840 Upper and Lower Canada were united into the Province of Canada.

During the following two decades the need for closer cooperation between the provinces of British North America was made evident. The American Civil War, the need for mutual protection, and desirability of closer trade relations advanced the cause of confederation. In 1867 the three provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick united to form the

Dominion of Canada. In 1869 the Dominion acquired the rights of the Hudson's Bay Company and transformed part of what had been known as Rupert's Land into the North West Territories. In 1870 the Red River Settlement came into the Dominion as the province of Manitoba, and in 1871 British Columbia joined the Dominion. Prince Edward Island came into the Confederation in 1873.

The province of Canada was divided into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario in 1867. In 1876 and in 1882 the districts of Keewatin, Athabaska, Alberta, Assiniboia, and Saskatchewan were formed out of the North West Territories. Yukon and Ungava were later detached from the North West Territories which also underwent territorial reorganization. In 1905 Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces of the Dominion. At various times the boundaries of several of the provinces have been adjusted, greatly increasing their area. In 1927 the long-standing dispute between Newfoundland and Canada, as to the ownership of Labrador, was settled in favor of Newfoundland.

SOUTH AMERICA TODAY



Figure XIV. SOUTH AMERICA TODAY

HISPANIC AMERICA 1828



Figure XV. HISPANIC AMERICA 1828

In previous maps, 1, 2, 3, and 6, various phases of the history of Hispanic America down to 1763 have been outlined. At this latter date the domination of Hispanic America by the Spanish and Portuguese was being challenged by the English, French, and Dutch (see Map A6).

The revolt of the Spanish colonies in South America came about a third of a century behind the revolt of the English colonies in North America. Excessive taxation, land monopoly, and class favoritism were the primary causes. The conquest of Spain by Napoleon was made the occasion of a general uprising, particularly in northern South America under Miranda and Bolivar; in La Plata under Artigas, Francia and others; in Chile under O'Higgins; and in Mexico under Hidalgo and others. The wars for independence, beginning in 1808, consisted of two main movements. In the north, Caracas and Bogota were the chief centers of revolution. In the south, Buenos Aires and Santiago were the principal foci.

These two movements came together in Peru, the last center of royalist power, for the final overthrow of Spanish rule.

The new Hispanic American nations were not established easily or without opposition. There followed a long struggle for political stability, national solidarity, and economic prosperity. Personal ambitions led to the establishment of dictatorships in some areas. By 1828 the established republics in the former possessions of Spain in South America were: Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentine Confederation, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

Independence came to Brazil without bloodshed. Under the threat of Napoleon, the Prince Regent of Portugal fled to Brazil with his court. In 1815 Brazil was raised to the rank of a kingdom. As a result of disagreement with Portugal, Brazil became an independent empire in 1822 with Dom Pedro as emperor.

HISPANIC AMERICA 1850-1945

The political evolution of the republics of South America has been marked by bitter struggles and civil wars. Colombia was founded in 1819 by Bolivar and in 1821, Quito (Ecuador) was annexed. In 1829-1830 Ecuador and Venezuela withdrew from Colombia and established separate republics. United States of Colombia, the present Republic of Colombia, adopted a reorganized form of government in 1886. Brazil became an independent empire in 1822. In 1831 Don Pedro the emperor abdicated in favor of his son Dom Pedro II, a minor, who was crowned in 1841, and reigned until the revolution of 1889 which led to the establishment of Brazil as a republic. Argentina (Argentine Republic), on its declaration of independence from Spain, was known as the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata and later as the Argentine Confederation. The present constitution dates from 1853.

The territorial limits of the various countries have varied at different periods. The international relations of the South American republics have been mainly with each other. Since 1850 harmonious relationships have been interrupted frequently by boundary disputes, a summary of which is shown on the accompanying map. A few rivalries have resulted in strife, notably war between Brazil and Paraguay (1856-1870), and what is known as the War of the Pacific (1879-1884) between Chile on the one hand and Bolivia and Peru on the other. The final settlement of this dispute between Peru and Chile was arranged in 1929 by the transfer of the Tacna area to Peru. Bolivia, not being considered in this settlement, has expressed her dissatisfaction. The dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay in the Gran Chaco was settled in 1938.

The following list summarizes the territorial disputes and adjustments in South America since 1850. All major disputes have now been settled amicably.

EXPANSION OF BRAZIL

1. From Uruguay 1851
2. From Venezuela 1859, 1905
3. From Bolivia 1867, 1903

4. From Paraguay 1872
5. From Argentina 1895
6. From Ecuador 1904
7. From Colombia 1907



Figure XVI. HISPANIC AMERICA 1850-1945

QUESTION OF THE PACIFIC

- a. Yielded by Bolivia to Chile 1884
- b. Yielded by Peru to Chile 1884
- c. and d. In dispute between Peru and Chile 1879-1929.
- Occupied by Chile d. Ceded to Peru by Chile 1929

OTHER DISPUTED AREAS

- A. Gran Chaco in dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay until 1938. Settled in favor of Paraguay.
- B. Disputed area between Ecuador and Peru until 1942.
- C. In dispute between Venezuela and Britain until 1899.

UNITED STATES IN WORLD WAR I

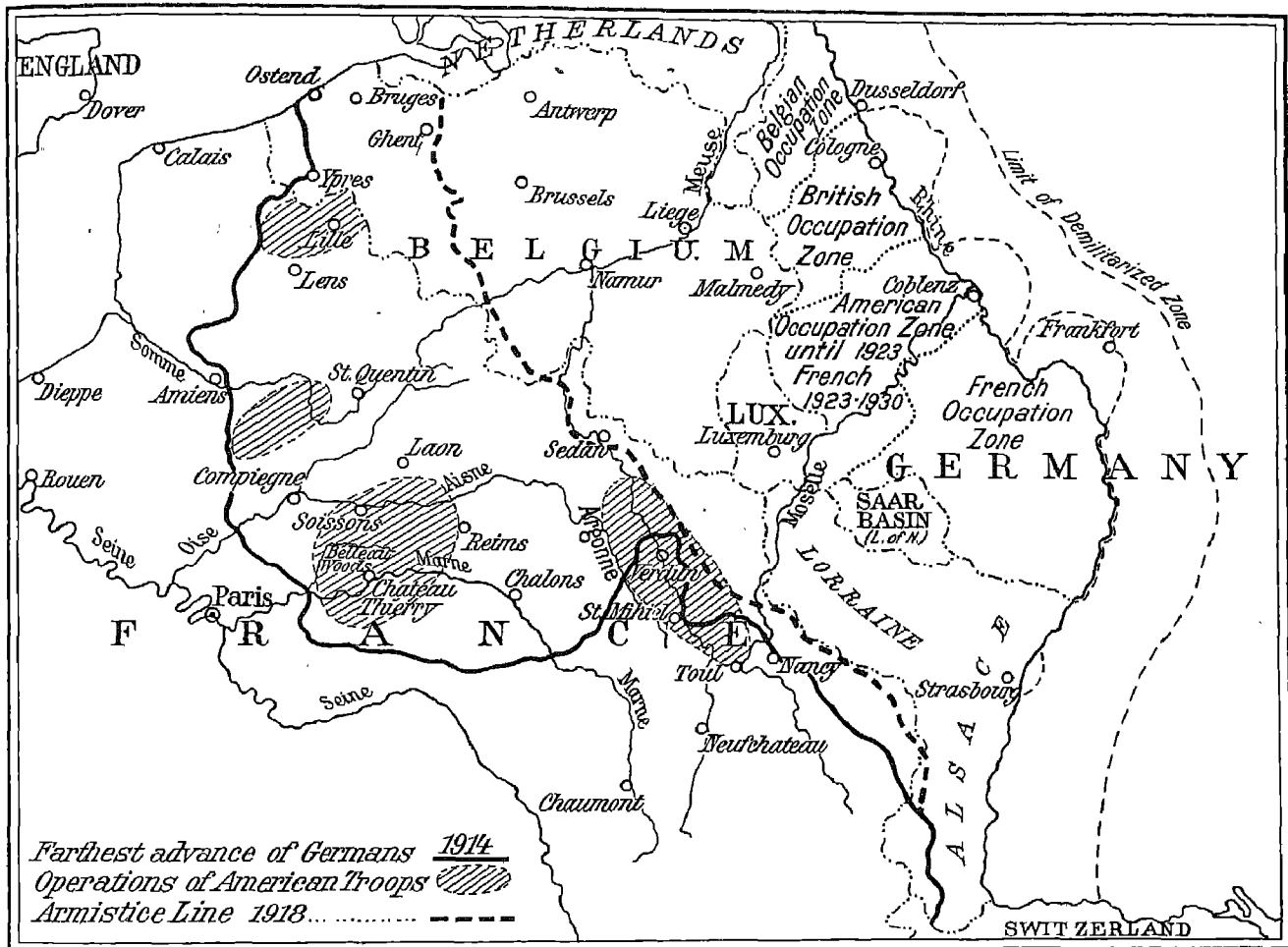


Figure XVII. THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD WAR I

The United States entered World War I on the side of the Allied nations on April 6, 1917. Almost two million American soldiers had been landed in France by the end of the War in November, 1918. The aid of the United States, both military

and naval, had a decided bearing on the ultimate Allied victory. The map shows the Western Front and the special areas in which American troops operated, including the zone of occupation.

WAR IN THE PACIFIC 1941-1945

The great part played by the United States in the Pacific during the Second World War is illustrated on Figure XVIII.

A study of the map indicates the relative geographical situation of the opposing forces operating in the war—Japan with its relative easy access to bases of supply, while the United

States and the British Empire, as the main parties of the opposing forces, had to operate without these advantages. The map also illustrates the extent to which Japan dominated Southwest Asia at the opening of the war, and the further extension of its territorial control to 1942 after which date the power of Japan began to decline.

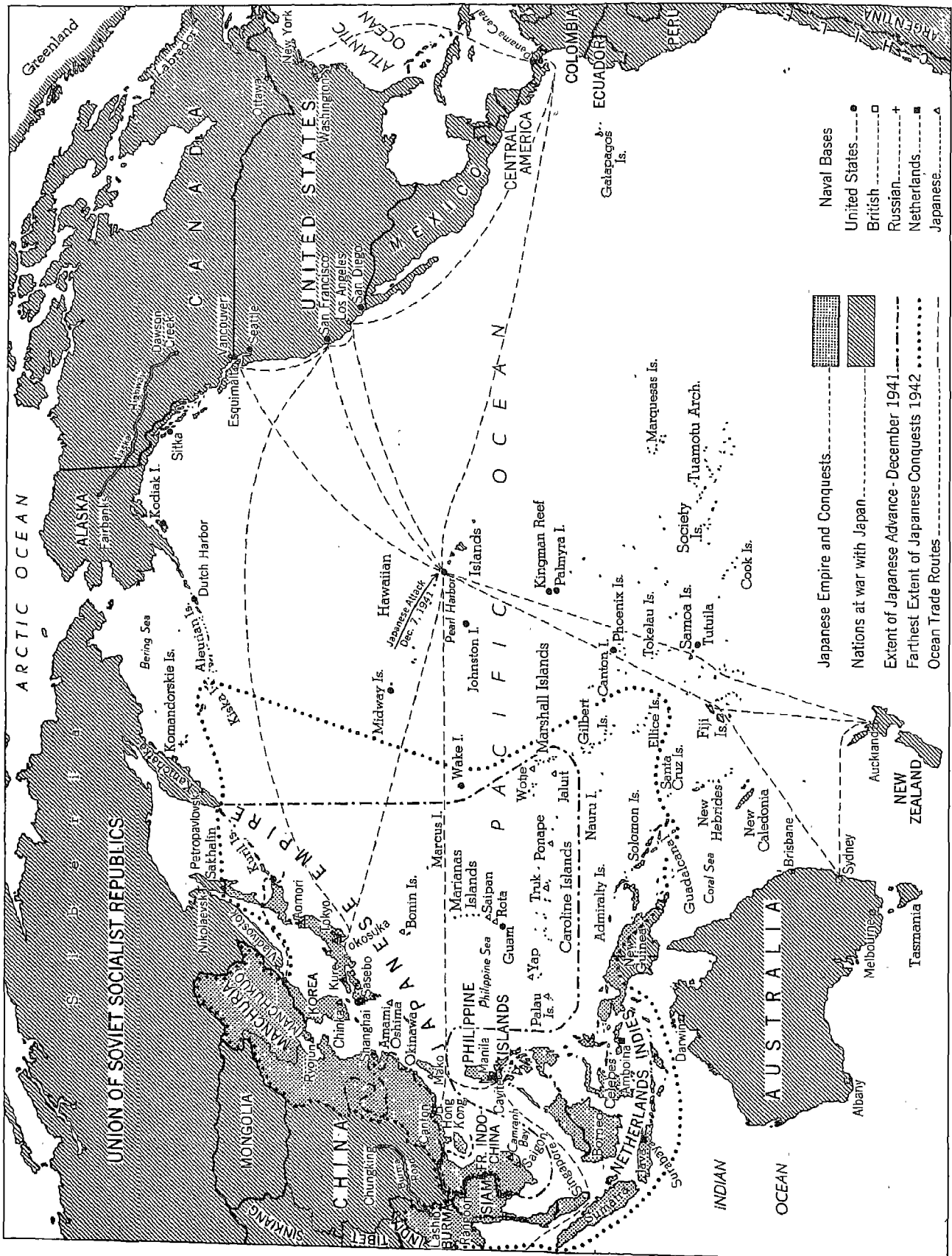


FIGURE XVIII. WAR IN THE PACIFIC 1941-1945

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Location is shown by latitude and longitude to the nearest degree. *N.*-north; *S.*-south; *E.*-east; and *W.*-west.

A	PAGE	PAGE	PAGE	PAGE					
Aberdeen, 45N. 99W.	19	Arkansas, 35N. 93W.	14	Bentonington, Inset.	48	Bulgaria, 42N. 25E.	11	Cabo, 19N. 66W.	3
Abingdon, 37N. 82W.	19	Arkansas, r., 38N. 103W.	11	Bentonville, 35N. 78W.	10	Bul Run, Inset B.	46	Calaça, 21N. 100W.	23
Abtibi, r., 60N. 81W.	1	Arkansas, tr., 36N. 95W.	11	Bent's Fort, 38N. 103W.	14	Bunker Hill, Inset B.	8	Celebes, is. 2S. 120E.	23
Abnakis, tr., 45N. 69W.	1	Arkansas, tr., 36N. 92W.	4	Berensia, 24N. 35E.	1	Bureau of Engraving & Pntg., Inset A.	45	Cempalla, 19N. 96W.	3
Acadia, 47N. 68W.	23	Arkansas Post, 34N. 91W.	7	Bergen, 60N. 5E.	41	Bureau of Standards, Inset B.	45	Centerville, Inset B.	10
Acapulco, 17N. 100W.	23	Arlington, 32N. 85W.	48	Bering Sea, 58N. 170E.	24	Burgoyne, 1777, 45N. 74W.	45	Corro Gordo, Inset B.	14
Achilles, 32N. 93W.	11	Arlington Memorial Bridge, Inset A.	45	Berkeley, 38N. 122W.	22	Burke, 1777, 45N. 74W.	45	Couta, 30N. 5W.	1
Adairville, Inset A.	16	Arlington National Cemetery, Inset B.	45	Bermudas, is., 32N. 65W.	6	Burkesville, 37N. 85W.	18	Ceylon (Seylan) 8N. 80E.	1
Adelaide, 35S. 130E.	24	Arroyo, 32N. 84W.	11	Beverly, 30N. 80W.	16	Burlington, 41N. 91W.	13	Chads Ford, Inset F.	8
Aden, 13N. 45E.	1	Arnold, 1775, 45N. 71W.	8	Bhatia, 24N. 90E.	41	Butte, 48N. 112W.	10	Chagres, r., Inset.	23
Adirondack, mts., 44N. 76W.	10	Asby's Gap, Inset B.	18	Big Black, r., Inset C.	16	Butts Hill, Inset D.	8	Chambersburg, Inset B.	16
Afghanistan, 32N. 65E.	41	Ashtland, 38N. 83W.	13	Big Falls, 48N. 94W.	43			Champion's Hill, Inset C.	16
Agricultural College, 34N. 89W.	22	Ashtland, 47N. 91W.	21	Big Rock, 48N. 94W.	43			Champlain, 45N. 74W.	4
Agua, 18N. 07W.	22	Ashley, r., Inset.	15	Big Sioux, r., 43N. 97W.	11			Champlain, 1615-16, 46N. 80W.	4
Akron, 41N. 82W.	21	Ashtabula, 42N. 81W.	21	Bighorn, 45N. 108W.	11			Champton, 19N. 91W.	10
Alabama, 33N. 87W.	14	Asir, 16N. 42E.	21	Billings, 46N. 109W.	20			Chancellorsville, Inset B.	10
Alabama, r., 32N. 87W.	4	Assiniboine, r., 50N. 90W.	11	Biloxi, 30N. 89W.	21			Chancellorsville, Inset B.	10
Alaska, 64N. 155W.	24	Astor, 29N. 81W.	43	Birmingham, 34N. 87W.	21			Chaptauque, Inset.	14
Alaska, g., 78N. 145W.	24	Astoria, 46N. 124W.	13	Biur, 5N. 77W.	20			Chaptauque, Inset B.	14
Albania, 40N. 20E.	21	Asuncion, 26S. 68W.	6	Bisbee, 31N. 110W.	20			Charles, r., Inset B.	4
Albany, 32N. 84W.	11	Atchison, 40N. 95W.	18	Bismarck, 47N. 101W.	18			Charleston, 38N. 80W.	4
Albany, r., 61N. 90W.	11	Athapascan, tr., 63N. 148W.	1	Black r., Inset F.	8			Charleston, 38N. 82W.	17
Albamar, ed., 36N. 76W.	4	Athens, 34N. 83W.	22	Black R. Bridge, Inset C.	16			Charlestown, Inset C.	8
Albuquerque, 35N. 107W.	15	Atlanta, 34N. 84W.	13	Black Sea, 42N. 33E.	41			Charlestown, Inset C.	8
Alcalde, 33N. 120W.	22	Atrato, r., 7N. 77W.	8	Blackburg, 37N. 80W.	22			Charlotte 35N. 81W.	8
Alcorn, 32N. 91W.	22	Auburn, 33N. 80W.	24	Bladensburg, 39N. 77W.	10			Charlotte, Inset F.	8
Alcornoque, is., 52N. 178W.	3	Auckland, 37S. 176E.	24	Blanchard, 45N. 70W.	43			Charlotteville, 38N. 75W.	8
Alexandria, Inset F.	4	Alemania, 42N. 81W.	21	Blanco, c., 21N. 17W.	1			Chateaugay, 45N. 73W.	10
Alexandria, Inset F.	4	Alemania, 42N. 81W.	21	Bloomfield, 41N. 92W.	43			Chattahoochee, r., 32N. 85W.	4
Alexandria, 31N. 92W.	16	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Blue Ridge, 37N. 80W.	10			Chattanooga, 35N. 85W.	13
Alexandria Reservoir, Inset B.	45	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bluefields, 12N. 84W.	20			Chelsea, Inset B.	8
Algeria, 32N. 5E.	41	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bogota, 5N. 77W.	20				41
Algiers, 37N. 3E.	41	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bojardo, 4N. 116W.	6				41
Algoma, 43N. 94W.	43	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bokhar, c., 26N. 14W.	1				41
Algonquin, tr., 60N. 103W.	1	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bokhar, 40N. 64E.	1				41
Allatona, Inset A.	16	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bolivar, 8N. 84W.	23				41
Allietheny, r., 42N. 79W.	4	Alfama, 42N. 81W.	21	Bolivia, 17S. 65W.	23				41
Allentown, 41N. 75W.	21								

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Page		Page		Page		Page		Page	
Guanajuato, 21N. 101W.	23	Inca, p. 5S 75W	1	Jackson, 32N. 90W.	10	Lander, 43N. 109W.	43	Manihiki, is., 10S. 155W.	24
Guantanamo, 21N. 75W.	23	Inca Empire, Inset.	13	Jackson, 1862, Inset B.	16	Langston, 36N. 97W.	22	Manila, 51N. 121E.	2
Guarani, tr., 28S. 85W.	1	Independence, 39N. 95W.	3	Jackson, 1862, Inset B.	16	Lansing, 43N. 85W.	15	Manila Galleon, Route 42N.	150W.
Guatemala, 15N. 90W.	1	India, 20N. 80E.	41	Jackson River, 38N. 80W.	13	Laramie, 41N. 105W.	10	Manistique, 46N. 86W.	21
Guaymas, tr., 28S. 61W.	1	Indian Country, 176S. 35N.	8	Jacksonville, 30N. 82W.	13	Las Vegas, 36N. 105W.	13	Manitoba, L. 51N. 103W.	11
Guaymas, 28N. 111W.	6	85W.	8	Jalapa, 16N. 78W.	14	Latvia, 58N. 28E.	41	Manitowac, 41N. 88W.	21
Guaymas, 152S. 17S. 90W.	2	Indian, Ter., 35N. 96W.	18	Jamaica, 18N. 78W.	3	Lawrence, 43N. 71W.	27	Manizales, 5N. 70W.	23
Guiana, 4N. 55W.	24	Indian Reservations:	18	James, b., 32N. 80W.	11	Lead, 45N. 104W.	20	Manzanillo, 20N. 77W.	23
Guilford, 36N. 80W.	8	Blackfeet, 49N. 113W.	18	James, r., 38N. 78W.	4	Leadville, 39N. 100W.	13	Maracibo, L. 10N. 71W.	3
Guinea, 7N. 2W.	2	Choyenne River, 45N.	18	Jamestown, 37N. 77W.	4	Leavenworth, 39N. 95W.	13	Marblehead, 42N. 71W.	7
Guthrie, 36N. 97W.	48	101W.	18	Janos, 31N. 109W.	6	Lebanon, 37N. 86W.	43	Marco Polo, 1271, 40N.	94E.
H									
Haarlem Heights, Inset.	8	Crow, 45N. 108W.	18	Japan (Cipango), 36N.	1	Lecompton, 39N. 95W.	48		
Habana, 25N. 82W.	3	Crow Creek, 44N. 99W.	18	135E.	1	Lee, 1862, Inset B.	16		
Hackensack, Inset F.	8	Duck Valley, 42N. 110W.	18	Japan, Sea, 40N. 135E.	24	Leesburg, Inset B.	16		
Hagerstown, Inset B.	16	Fort Apache, 34N. 110W.	18	Japanese Empire, 52N.	142E.	24	Leesburg, Inset F.	8	
Haiti, 19N. 72W.	2	Fort Belknap, 48N.	18	142E.	24	Lehigh, r., Inset F.	8		
Halifax, 45N. 63W.	24	108W.	18	Java, L. 8S. 110E.	24	Lena, r., 68N. 125E.	24		
Halifax, 36N. 78W.	48	Fort Berthold, 48N.	18	Java Major (Borneo) 4N.	1	Lenington, 60N. 80E.	41		
Halleville, 38N. 95W.	43	102W.	18	Java Minor (Sumatra), 2N.	1	Leon, 38N. 87W.	23		
Hamburg, 54N. 10E.	1	Fort Hall, 43N. 112W.	18	97E.	1	Leon, 21N. 101W.	23		
Hamburg, 33N. 82W.	17	Gila River, 33N. 112W.	18	Jefferson City, 36N. 92W.	10	Leon & Castile, Inset A.	1		
Hamilton, 43N. 80W.	13	Hualpai, 36N. 113W.	18	Jersey City, 41N. 74W.	22	Levis, 47N. 71W.	13		
Hamilton, 177S. 40N. 86W.	8	Huapala, 41N. 124W.	18	Jesup, 42N. 92W.	13	Lewis (Zwannedan), 30N.	75W.		
Hampton, 37N. 76W.	22	Jicarilla Apache, 37N.	107W.	Jonesboro, 30N. 83W.	10	Lewis & Clark, 1801-5, 43N.	108W.		
Hancock, 47N. 89W.	43	Klamath, 42N. 121W.	18	Johnstown, 43N. 74W.	21	Lewiston, 43N. 70W.	11		
Hankow, 31N. 114E.	41	Menominee, 45N. 89W.	18	Johnstown, 40N. 79W.	21	Lewiston, 47N. 109W.	43		
Hanibal, 40N. 91W.	13	Mescalero Apache, 33N.	18	Joliet, 42N. 88W.	21	Lexington, 38N. 85W.	10		
Hanoi, 21N. 106E.	24	Mission, 34N. 116W.	18	Joplin, 37N. 96W.	20	Lexington, Inset B.	8		
Hanover, Inset B.	16	Navajo Mts., 36N. 80W.	18	Joseph, 45N. 117W.	42	Lexington Common, Inset	8		
Hanover, Inset B.	10	North Cheyenne, 45N.	18	Jose Van Dyke, L. 18N.	23				
Hanover, Inset F.	8	106W.	18	Juan de Fuca, str., 47N.	11	Lhasa, 30N. 91E.	41		
Hanover, Inset F.	48	Osage, 36N. 96W.	18	125W.	11	Liberia, 6N. 10E.	41		
Harbin, 46N. 127E.	24	Papago, 32N. 112W.	18	Juneau, 58N. 134W.	24	Libia, 28N. 15E.	41		
Harbor Beach, 44N. 83W.	43	Pine Ridge, 44N. 103W.	18	Justice Dept., Inset A.	45	Library of Congress, Inset	45		
Hard Times, Inset C.	16	Pyramid Lake, 40N.	18						
Harper, 37N. 98W.	43	120W.	18	Kabankawan, Inset.	6	Lima, 12S. 77W.	2		
Harper's Ferry, 39N. 78W.	16	Qualla, 36N. 84W.	18	Kabul, 35N. 69E.	1	Limestone, 30N. 81W.	10		
Harriensaw, r., 51N. 79W.	13	Red Lake, 48N. 95W.	18	Kadoka, 41N. 102W.	43	Lincoln, 41N. 97W.	17		
Harrisburg, 40N. 77W.	11	Rosebud, 48N. 100W.	18	Kanawha, r., 38N. 82W.	4	Lincoln, Inset B.	4		
Harrison, 52N. 41N. 84W.	13	San Carlos (White Mtn.),	18	Kankakee, r., 41N. 87W.	4	Lincoln Memorial, Inset A.	45		
Harrisonburg, Inset B.	16	33N. 107W.	18	Kansas, 38N. 90W.	15	Lisbon, 39N. 8W.	41		
Harrison's Landing, Inset	10	Shoshone, 43N. 100W.	18	Kansas, r., 41N. 87W.	4	Lithuania, 56N. 23E.	41		
B.	10	Warm Springs, 45N.	18	Kansas, ter., 39N. 100W.	31	Little Colorado, r., 36N.	111W.		
Harrodsburg, 38N. 85W.	8	121W.	18	Kansas City, 39N. 95W.	16	Little Corn, L., 18N. 81W.	23		
Hartford, 42N. 73W.	4	White Earth, 47N. 95W.	18	Kashgar, 39N. 76E.	1	Little Falls, 43N. 75W.	21		
Harvard College, Inset B.	8	White Mtn. (San Carlos)	18	Kaskaskia, 38N. 90W.	7	Little Missouri, r., 47N.	11		
Hassini, tr., Inset.	6	33N. 109W.	18	Kaskaskia, r., 39N. 80W.	4	101W.	11		
Haverhill, 43N. 71W.	4	Yakima, 46N. 120W.	18	Kawita, 32N. 85W.	7	Little Rock, 35N. 92W.	10		
Haverstraw, Inset F.	8	Zuni, 35N. 107W.	18	Kearney, 41N. 99W.	18	Liverpool, 51N. 3W.	41		
Hawaii, 50N. O.	41	Indiana, 40N. 86W.	10	Kearney, 1816, 38N. 102W.	11	Livingston, 37N. 85W.	43		
Hawaii, 25S. 165W.	24	Indiana, ter., 43N. 90W.	29	Keele, 30N. 118E.	43	Lloret, 42N. 127E.	14		
Haynes Bluff, Inset C.	16	Indiana Harbor, 42N. 88W.	21	Keio, 37N. 127E.	41	Logan, 42N. 112W.	22		
Hobbsville, 11N. 99W.	13	Indianapolis, 40N. 86W.	43	Kenia, 1N. 38E.	41	Logan, 40N. 100W.	43		
Hejaz, 25N. 38E.	41	Indiana, 40N. 100W.	43	Kennebec, r., 45N. 70W.	4	Logans, 38N. 85W.	8		
Helena, 47N. 112W.	16	Indus, r., 30N. 70E.	41	Kentucky, 37N. 81W.	10	Logstown, 41N. 80W.	4		
Helena, 35N. 90W.	16	Inner Mongolia, 40N. 107E.	24	Kentucky, r., 38N. 84W.	4	London, 51N. O.	1		
Heligoland, 50N. 25E.	41	Institute, 39N. 82W.	22	Keokuk, 40N. 91W.	18	London Company, 1606,	37N. 78W.		
Hennepin, 1680, 44N. 92W.	4	Interior Dep't., Inset A.	45	Kermadec, 35N. 83W.	7	Long, L., 41N. 73W.	4		
Henric, 37N. 77W.	4	Internal Revenue Dep't.,	45	Kermadec, is., 30S. 179W.	24	Long Island, ed., 41N. 73W.	21		
Henson Creek, Inset B.	45	Inset A.	45	Kernstown, Inset B.	10	Lorain, 41N. 82W.	21		
Herrat, 34N. 62E.	1	Iowa, 42N. 94W.	14	Key West, 25N. 82W.	19	Lord Howe, 1776, 41N. 69W.	8		
Hidalgo, Inset.	14	Iowa, r., 42N. 92W.	13	Kingman, mts., 45N. 110E.	1	Loretto, 20N. 112W.	6		
Higley, 18N. 69W.	3	Iowa City, 42N. 91W.	13	Kishinoue, 37N. 80W.	1	Los Angeles, 34N. 118W.	13		
Hillsboro, 36N. 79W.	8	Iowa, ter., 44N. 94W.	30	Kiachon, 36N. 120E.	24	Louisa, 38N. 83W.	10		
Hobbsville, 34N. 81W.	16	Iowa, tr., 41N. 92W.	4	Kickapoo, 36N. 120E.	24	Louise, Inset F.	8		
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